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ABSTRACT

This comparison study is based on individual studies of different countries on the subject of "Vocational Training and Job Creation Programmes" carried out by well-known German research institutes. It established the different types of job creation schemes in operation in the Member States of the European community. It investigated the linkage of job creation programs with vocational training and evaluated the effects and conclusions of policies on the labor market and vocational training. Three forms of labor market-oriented and vocational training programs were differentiated: employment-oriented, training-oriented, and autonomy-oriented (advocacy of entrepreneurship) job creation schemes. Evaluation was based on three criteria resulting from the economic and social rationales behind the objectives of the schemes: orientation toward the target groups, assessment of output orientation/allocative efficiency, and form of training. In the main, designs of job creation programs were found to neglect the allocative aspect. The weak points in the linkage between job creation schemes and vocational training were even more pronounced. In the majority of programs, the training function had hardly been taken into account at all. Job creation schemes were seen as having great possibilities if more effective combinations of employment effects, demand-oriented work, and vocational training were aimed at and achieved. (Appendixes include a list of abbreviations, glossary, a selected literature listing, and an overview of job creation schemes.) (YLB)

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Vocational training and job creation schemes in the countries of the European Community

CEDEFOP

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Vocational Training and Job Creation Schemes in the Countries of the European Community

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FOREWORD

This study was conducted at the instigation and on behalf of the European Centre for the Development of Vocational Training (CEDEFOP). It is a comparison study and is based on individual studies on the different countries, also commissioned by CEDEFOP, on the subject of "Vocational Training and Job Creation Programmes", which were carried out by well-known German research institutes.

The purpose of this comparison study is to
- establish the different types of job creation scheme in operation in the Member States of the European Community,
- investigate the linkage of and job creation programmes, with particular emphasis on vocational training and
- evaluate the effects and conclusions of policies on the labour market and vocational training.

Both past and present labour market and educational measures, including experience gained with labour market policies in the seventies, have been evaluated. As the national studies commissioned by CEDEFOP could only include policies employed up to the beginning of the eighties, and answered the questions posed in this study to varying extents, it was necessary also to employ other analyses which exceeded the scope of the CEDEFOP reports.

I also had the opportunity to speak with academic staff, interest group representatives and persons responsible for economic policy in some of the Member States, and would like to extend my warmest thanks to all those, both ladies and gentlemen, who put their time and knowledge at my disposal with such patience and goodwill.

My co-workers in the FSA-EDV, above all Herr Dr. Rudiger Dragendorf, Herr Dipl.-Soz. Jochen Hatry and Herr Dipl.-Soz. Manfred Huber, carried out a series of calcul-

ations with great understanding for rapidly designed models. I am grateful to Herr Wolfgang Geßner and Frau Fotini Lekka for their help in preparing material in languages which I have difficulty in understanding. I owe thanks to several people for taking on the task of rendering even the most confusing manuscripts legible, in particular Frau Brigitte Maas, Frau Anneliese Hass and Frau Gabi Feigl.

To my great satisfaction I was able to do this study together with two knowledgeable and clever young specialists. They were responsible for the attached country-by-country breakdowns of data on the job creation schemes. However, happily they did not only help with the examination and preparation of empirical phenomena, but also with the evaluation of the results. I am greatly indebted to these two students of political science, Herr Gunnar John and Herr Frank Moller for their advice, commitment and the stringency of their arguments.

The support from the European Centre for the Development of Vocational Training was not restricted to the financial side, but also included encouragement and advice. I am particularly grateful to Herr Burkart Sellin for his help and patience, which were an important contribution to the conduct of this project.

I naturally assume all responsibility for any errors or misunderstandings.

Berlin, July 1985

Michael Bolle

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Challenges and types of policy

I Challenges and types of policy

1. Basic economic patterns: structures

At the beginning of the eighties the countries of the European Community had an average overall unemployment rate of about ten per cent, i.e. about 13 million persons were unemployed. The economic policy makers in the Member States and the European agencies quite rightly emphasized that such a high level of forced unemployment places a burden both on the individual societies and on the persons affected which is in the long term unacceptable. The nature of the burden can be defined: for the national economies it is the loss of production resulting from unemployment and the financial cost to the State associated with relieving the material needs of the unemployed. The unemployed themselves experience the burden more directly: loss of income results in a fall in living standards, unemployment leads to exclusion from stable human relationships and social isolation, and mental and physical illness frequently ensue.

While the unemployment rates are high in all countries of the Community the levels in the individual countries vary. Ireland, Belgium, Italy, the Netherlands and the United Kingdom are particularly badly affected. The Federal Republic of Germany, France, Luxembourg and Denmark have below average rates. By contrast, the time courses of the unemployment curves are similar for all

countries, some merely showing the same developments as others, but later. Unemployment rates have been rising in all countries of the Community since the middle of the seventies. Apart from Ireland, Italy and, within limits, Belgium, the unemployment rates in 1973 could still be described as bordering on full employment. At the beginning of the eighties this was no longer the case in any Community country.

The reasons are well-known:

a) The rates of growth in real production, in terms of the gross national product, have fallen in the Community. While growth in Ireland, Greece, France and Belgium was higher than the Community average in the seventies, and lower than the average in the United Kingdom and Denmark, the rate of growth has slowed in all Community countries.

b) There has been a qualitative change in economic growth. Whereas in the seventies in the majority of Community countries there was a close link between economic growth and employment trends with the result that as a rule the countries with high growth rates also showed a distinct rise in the level of employment, in the eighties there has been a stronger tendency for unemployment trends to become dissociated from growth rates. Only in the Federal Republic of Germany was there a fall in employment levels owing to above-average increases in productivity before the end of the seventies. This pattern has persisted into the

eighties in most Member States. While worker productivity in terms of the real output per worker has shown a more rapid rise than gorowth rates, there was a fall in the level of employment in most Community countries at the beginning of the eighties. This applies for instance to Belgium, the Federal Republic of Germany, France, the United Kingdom, Ireland in particular, Luxembourg and the Netherlands. It has been possible to achieve a slight increase in the level of employment in Italy and Greece, and only in Denmark was there an above-average increase in the employment rate.

c) As a result of this trend the problems on the labour markets have been accentuated owing to the fact that at the same time the working populations in the Community have increased. The number of job-seekers has been increasing in all Community countries since the mid-seventies, the rise starting at slightly different times. The rate of the increase in the working population varies: it is very high in Ireland, Italy, the Netherlands, Greece and Denmark.

If economic policies do not place greater emphasis on the struggle against unemployment than was the case in the seventies and at the beginning of the eighties unemployment will be a permanent problem for the next ten years. It is possible on the basis of forecasts for economic growth, productivity trends and the rise in the working population to make status quo projections to predict

unemployment levels in the countries of the Community for the next ten years. Some of these figures are shown in Table 1. The predictions show clearly that if economic strategies and conditions remain unchanged the number of unemployed will not have fallen by 1995. Even if it is possible to achieve a more rapid increase in output than in productivity, with a resulting increase in the number in employment, owing to the rise in the number of economically active persons, the level of unemployment will either remain constant, or, in some cases, increase. This applies for all Member States up to 1989. Not until the beginning of the nineties will there be an improvement in some countries resulting from a fall in the working population. This applies for the Federal Republic of Germany and Luxembourg. The sharp increase in the working population in the nineties in Ireland, the Netherlands and France will force these countries to take strong measures to combat unemployment. The European Community will have to support these efforts.

The social and economic costs of unemmployment are considerable. However, they are still underestimated, even when the rate of unemployment alone is taken into account, without regard to the structure. Naturally it is possible to imagine societies in which - to give an example with an order of magnitude similar to that in the Federal Republic of Germany - two million out of a total of 24 million unemployed persons available to the labour market are unemployed in two different months, the two

Table 1 Unemployment trends in the Member States of the EC up to 1995 (forecast)

Country	1983		1989	1995	
	% of UE	No. of UE	% of UE	No. of UE	% of UE
Belgium	14.40	371.37	16.08	633.25	15.15
Denmark	9.70	227.24	8.42	121.16	4.49
Federal Republic of Germany	8.40	3 035.82	11.09	1 610.67	6.04
France	8.90	2 890.23	12.15	3.256.43	13.34
Greece (*)	8.70	...	...	...	...
Ireland	13.20	235.99	17.05	287.77	19.00
Italy	11.90	3 331.34	14.10	3 487.99	14.54
Luxembourg (*)	1.50	...	...	...	...
Netherlands	14.30	966.24	16.27	907.33	14.89
United Kingdom	11.70	3 133.00	11.87	2 631.26	10.00
Community of the Ten	10.30	14 582.80	12.221	13 157.30	10.98

(*) Empirical basis too uncertain for making forecasts
(**) Empirical basis uncertain; in view of the expected fall in the size of the working population and simultaneous increase in employment a stabilization around the full employment level is to be expected.
Source: Eurostat, Prognos AG, FSA-EDV (authors' own calculations)
% of UE: percentage of unemployed persons
No. of UE: number of unemployed persons

million being a different two million in each case. This society would also have an unemployment rate of just over eight per cent and feel the effects of the burden on the economy resulting from lost production and the financial costs to the State in the form of unemployment benefits. However, this is a model and not reality. Unemployment is unequally distributed among individual persons and groups of persons. Depending on the system of industrial relations in operation in the various countries of the European Community, the engagement and dismissal procedures and legal regulations, selection processes render some people and social groups victims of the labour market, while other people and social groups enjoy stable employment despite the high level of unemployment.

On an empirical level the different degrees to which people and groups are affected are manifested in the differing rates of unemployment for different groups of workers, which can be classified according to sex, age, duration of unemployment and qualifications. Table 2 shows the unemployment rates for young people, adult men and women and the duration of unemployment for the Community countries. It reveals similar phenomena in all Member States. The unemployment rates for young people are higher than the average. Youth unemployment is very high in Belgium, Denmark, France, Ireland, Italy, the Netherlands and Great Britain, in relation to the average for the Community. Comparison of the figures for adult men and women also shows that in many Member States women

Table 2

The structure of unemployment (%)

Country	Period	% of unemployed	Young people			Adults			Duration of unemployment			
			Total	Men	Women	Total	Men	Women	Period	Less than 3 mths.	More than 6 mths.	Over 12 mths.
Belgium	1973	2,8	3,1	2,3	4,0	1,5	1,0	2,1	1974	21,8	67,3	52,0
	1979	8,4	12,8	7,8	18,5	5,8	3,2	11,2	1979	25,6	61,0	49,0
	1982[1]	14,4	22,8	20,0	26,0	9,1	6,0	15,2	1982	20,9	65,8	51,9
Denmark	1973	0,9	- -	- -	- -	- -	- -	- -	1974	- -	- -	- -
	1979	5,3	11,2	7,5	15,4	5,0	3,6	7,0	1979	69,4	17,0	7,8[2]
	1983[1]	9,7	33,9	29,2	38,8	8,6	6,9	8,2	1982	70,1	12,0	5,5
Fed.Rep. of Germany	1973	1,0	0,9	0,8	1,0	0,4	0,3	0,7	1974	- -	- -	- -
	1979	3,3	3,8	3,1	4,6	2,2	1,6	3,3	1979	41,1	39,9	19,9
	1983[1]	8,4	16,9	16,8	17,1	2,5	2,0	3,4	1982	35,6	46,6	21,1
France	1973	1,8	4,1	3,4	4,9	1,3	1,1	1,7	1974	61,9	24,7	11,9
	1979	4,0	14,3	10,4	18,2	3,0	3,2	4,9	1979	44,8	38,2	21,8
	1983[1]	8,9	26,5	19,9	33,2	4,6	3,6	6,1	1982	39,0	47,4	25,2
Greece	1973	- -	- -	- -	- -	- -	- -	- -	1974	- -	- -	- -
	1979	0,9	- -	- -	- -	- -	- -	- -	1979	- -	- -	- -
	1983[1]	1,7	- -	- -	- -	- -	- -	- -	1982	- -	- -	- -
Ireland	1973	5,6	- -	- -	- -	- -	- -	- -	1974	- -	- -	- -
	1979	7,4	11,4	11,7	11,0	5,8	5,5	7,1	1979	- -	- -	31,6[2]
	1983[1]	15,2	25,5	28,7	21,6	9,3	10,2	6,1	1982	32,2	48,9	30,2
Italy	1973	4,9	14,9	14,6	15,4	1,9	1,6	2,8	1974	- -	- -	- -
	1979	7,5	21,0	18,0	24,8	2,5	1,9	4,1	1979	35,6	51,9	32,9
	1983[1]	11,9	34,2	28,0	41,7	2,3	1,6	3,8	1982	31,1	55,0	39,8
Luxembourg	1973	0,0	- -	- -	- -	- -	- -	- -	1974	- -	- -	- -
	1979	0,7	4,2	3,9	4,6	0,8	0,8	- -	1979	- -	- -	- -
	1983[1]	1,5	- -	- -	- -	- -	- -	- -	1982	52,4	- -	- -
Nether-lands	1973	2,9	2,9	3,4	2,4	1,6	1,6	1,1	1974	- -	- -	- -
	1979	5,5	6,4	5,8	7,0	2,6	2,6	2,5	1979	39,5	41,1	25,7
	1983[1]	14,2	25,0	26,1	23,8	5,9	4,0	3,7	1982	24,7	34,6	33,6
United Kingdom	1973	2,6	3,2	3,6	2,6	1,9	2,1	1,5	1974	- -	- -	- -
	1979	4,9	6,8	7,0	6,6	2,8	3,2	2,2	1979	41,2	41,0	26,1
	1983[1]	11,7	17,6	19,0	15,8	6,1	7,3	4,3	1982	29,0	34,7	35,5
Community of 10	1979	5,3	13,5	- -	- -	- -	- -	- -	1979	- -	- -	28,4
	1983	10,2	24,5	- -	- -	- -	- -	- -	1983	- -	- -	38,8

1) The figures in the column headed "Adults" date from 1981

Source: Eurostat

2) 1980

are worse hit by unemployment than men. This applies to Belgium, France, the Federal Republic of Germany and Italy. Only in Ireland and the United Kingdom are the rates of unemployment among men higher than those for women.

Unemployment is becoming more and more of a permanent problem for certain social groups. Scrutiny of the figures for the duration of unemployment reveals that the unemployment rates for long-term unemployed persons were markedly higher at the beginning of the eighties than at the beginning of the seventies. The only exceptions are Belgium, Denmark and Ireland. Long-term unemployment (duration of employment: over 6 months) is higher than average in Belgium, Italy, Ireland, the Netherlands and the United Kingdom.

Previous arguments regarding the structure of unemployment have been restricted to conventional empirical characteristics such as sex, age and duration of unemployment. For the purposes of this study (investigation of the links between vocational training and job creation programmes) it is important to extend this list to include the qualifications of unemployed persons. However, it should be taken into consideration that the empirical bases for analyzing the distribution of qualifications on the basis of the different occupation-based statistics are very uncertain. At least a few indicators have been empirically determined for this field. The results are

shown in Table 3, divided into three levels of training. The low bracket comprises unemployed persons seeking their first jobs, either not having completed vocational training of any kind and having worked either as unskilled or semi-skilled workers, or with minimal school education (statutory minimum of schooling), including those without any initial work or vocational experience. The middle level comprises unemployed persons having completed training as skilled workers on either an in-firm or joint company or alternance programme. Finally, the concept of "advanced qualification" refers to those with university or senior technical college level qualifications.

The structure of vocational qualifications among the unemployed in the individual countries can be defined on the basis of these simple indicators. Measured against the respective local standards, unemployment among workers with a low level of qualification is above average in the Federal Republic of Germany, Greece, Ireland, the Netherlands and Denmark. To a certain extent this also applies to the United Kingdom. Unemployment among workers in the middle qualification bracket is above average in Belgium, France, Italy, the United Kingdom and, to a limited extent, also in Denmark. Finally, above average unemployment among those in the highest qualification bracket is shown in the Federal Republic of Germany, France, Italy and, to a certain extent also in the United Kingdom. This structure results from the specific method of systematizing

Table 3:

Distribution of vocational qualifications among the unemployed

(All data given as percentages of all unemployed persons registered in the respective countries. Reference year 1981)

Countries	advanced qualifications	middle level qualifications	low level qualifications
Belgium[1]	1.1	80.8	18.1
Denmark[3]	9.3	39.5	51.2
Federal Republic of Germany	24.7	20.5	54.8
France	6.1	73.5	20.4
Greece[2]	4.7	32.6	62.7
Ireland	4.2	34.2	61.6
Italy	3.6	62.5	33.9
Netherlands	9.1	23.6	67.3
United Kingdom	9.8	71.7	18.5

1) Approx. 178 000 persons are employed in job creation schemes
2) Unemployed persons with work experience
3) 1982

Source: ILO Yearbook 82; Eurostat, Employment and Unemployment 1984; authors' own calculations FSA-EDV

vocational qualifications defined above, on which the data in Table 3 are also based. It is determined by the individual systems of vocational training in the respective countries. This explains the high levels of unemployment in the middle qualification bracket in Belgium, France and Italy, where initial vocational training is mainly received while still at school, and also the relatively low unemployment figures for those with a low level of qualification. In the United Kingdom the explanation for the high rate of unemployment in the "middle level of qualification" lies in the fact that this category includes unemployed persons having completed in-firm training, irrespective of whether a generally recognized certificate was awarded at the end of the course or not.

The reason for laying particular emphasis on the structural aspect of the unemployment is that certain alternative policies can be derived from the structural data. These alternatives apply to types of policies directed at "problem groups" on the labour market. In those countries in which these groups of workers (young people, women, the long-term unemployed and certain groups defined on the basis of qualification) are particularly badly hit by unemployment it might be expected that special policies would be drawn up to help these "victims of the labour market". It is therefore expedient to give a summary of the empirical results before proceeding to evaluate the policies.

Overview 1

Characteristics of groups worse hit than average

Young people	Belgium, Denmark, France, Ireland, Italy, Netherlands, United Kingdom
Women	Belgium, Federal Republic of Germany, France, Italy
Long-term unemployed	Belgium, Ireland, Italy, Netherlands, United Kingdom
Qualifications: skilled/unskilled	Denmark, Federal Republic of Germany, Greece, Ireland, Netherlands, France, United Kingdom
In-company and joint company (school-based) and alternance training	Belgium, France, Italy, United Kingdom
Persons with advanced qualifications	France, Germany, Italy

This synopsis should not be falsely interpreted. It should be borne in mind firstly, that since there is a limit to the comparability of the statistics the available information is incomplete, and secondly, that the severity of the problem was assessed by comparing the figures for the different Member States. It is no doubt the case that the severity of the respective problems is seen from a national point of view in the individual countries themselves and not as being relative to the situation in the country next-door. However, from the European standpoint several things become clear: some countries, for instance, Belgium, Ireland, Italy and, to a certain extent, France and the United Kingdom, are confronted with a "problem polygon", which is linked to the unemployment structure

2. Policies: alternatives

It is by no means a matter of course that labour market policy should be oriented towards problem groups. On the contrary, policies based on the following considerations are also conceivable: If it is possible to achieve an overall increase in the number of jobs and at the same time to promote vocational flexibility and mobility, the employment opportunities will be improved for everyone, including those in the disadvantaged groups, as a result of the policy promoting flexibility and mobility. This plan can be complemented by solidary policies on working hours. These are centered on the attempt to re-distribute the volume of work as determined by the hours of work, calculated as the number of persons employed multiplied by

the average number of hours worked, say, per year. This re-distribution can be achieved by encouraging those who work more than the average or the average number of hours per employee per year to work fewer hours by introducing an overall reduction in working hours. Flexible systems of working hours are an attempt to provide this encouragement by allowing employees a greater degree of personal freedom with regard to the decision as to how long they wish to work.

Today there is much controversy on the issue of whether solidary policies on working hours are worthwhile and possible, and if so, which of them, and also whether they can bring about the desired relief on the labour market. In some countries there is more discussion about ways of reducing weekly working hours - as in the Federal Republic of Germany, for example, and also to a certain extent in France, or the emphasis is placed on a reduction of the total working life (early retirement). In other countries, such as the United Kingdom, and also, to a degree, in the Federal Republic of Germany, attempts are being made to introduce flexible working arrangements such as job-sharing, part-time work and temporary employment. A mixture of alterations to working hours and policies on continuing education and re-training is to be found in Belgium, for example. In yet other countries, e.g. Greece, Ireland and Italy, the subject has not yet acquired the same importance.

In all other Member States, however, policies aimed at raising the employment level by forcing economic growth have been adopted. A strong trend towards policies promoting productivity-oriented economic growth has become evident in Ireland, the United Kingdom, recently also in France and the Federal Republic of Germany. These countries are making allowances for opportunities offered by the introduction of new technologies and it is assumed that the resultung impetus from productivity will promote the growth process and thus also bring about a rise in the employment rate. The growth targets set by these countries vary. In some countries, such as, for example, the Federal Republic of Germany, the Netherlands and Denmark, qualitative growth considerations, with particular emphasis on the quality of life, are also having an effect politically, and in others more attention is paid to modernization strategies. The Greeks are trying to adjust their productive structure to the level of that of the developed countries of the European Community, the Irish have opted for policies of industrialization. The French have for some time been concentrating more effort on modernizing their economy, and in the United Kingdom the economic plan for restructuring the economy to make way for new processes of production and products has now become firmly established.

It is difficult to decide which alternatives are suitable and right for which economic policies in the different Member States of the Communty. Strictly within the limits

of the theory on economic policy the discussion is centred on alternatives influenced by the demand- and supply-side controversy.

Supply-side economic policies were still firmly established in the majority of Community states in the seventies. Then, France, the United Kingdom, Italy and the Federal Republic of Germany, Denmark, Belgium and the Netherlands countered the falls in their growth rates and rising unemployment levels with economic policies with an anticyclic orientation. In line with Keynesian ideas credit-financed expenditure programmes both in the sphere of consumption and in the field of investment of national budgets were in the seventies still considered to be effective policies for increasing the level of employment. At the beginning of the eighties the European credo underwent a change: at this point the budget policies even of countries such as the United Kingdom, the Federal Republic of Germany, somewhat later also France, showed a swing towards supply-oriented measures. Supply-side economics has no place for anticyclic expenditure programmes, and attempts to improve the basic conditions for entrepreneurial investment, relying on the functional capacity of the "invisible hand" of the market. Based on the assumption that there is a backlog of investment projects the aim of these policies is mainly to reduce the burden of costs borne by industry.

Today it seems to be becoming more and more evident that a mixture of supply-oriented and demand-oriented measures is the most suitable instrument for employment policy. Supply-oriented policies have their place in the attempt to remove recognizable obstacles to investment. However, the pessimism of demand-oriented policies, which has been becoming increasingly plain in the eighties, is unjustified. The employment programmes financed with public funds during the seventies played an important role in stabilizing the level of unemployment and relieving the burden on the labour market. State expenditure policies concentrated in the investment sector also have their place in the eighties. More explicitly: under the pressure of the consolidation of the national budgets economic policies provided for such a large reduction in expenditure on investment at the start of the eighties that the cause of falls in growth can be attributed to this drop in the level of public investment. An employment-oriented economic policy will doubtlessly have to introduce state expenditure programmes in the investment sector.

The necessity for combining supply- and demand-oriented economic policies also arises form a second consideration. Supply-oriented measures are as a rule slow to take effect, whereas demand-oriented policies have a more immediate impact on the labour market.

Unemployment requires measures which are quick to take effect, since humans cannot be put aside like machines.

Nowadays it is of little help to young people to have to place their hopes in the distant future and wait for the nineties in the hope that they will then find a job. The well-known quotation from Keynes "in the long run we are all dead" is still valid today. If it is also true that demand-oriented measures - anticyclic expenditure programmes mainly in the field of investment - raise the level of unemployment and rapidly reduce the burden on the labour market, it is difficult to understand why supply- and demand-oriented measures cannot be mixed.

It is not necessary to discuss employment policy in detail at this point. Suffice it to establish that:

- at the beginning of the eighties economic policy in the countries of the European Community was more oriented towards supply-side strategies designed to modernize the economies than at the start of the seventies and

- all strategies described, i.e. both the growth- or productivity-oriented strategy and solidary policies on working hours may be assessed as job-creating policies.

Thus it will be necessary to distinguish between employment policies in general and specific job-creation programmes, which are the subject of the following study. The aim of general employment measures is to create permanent jobs, while job creation programmes attempt to

achieve short-term relief of the labour market by creating employment contracts with a limited term.

3. Job creation schemes: starting point

Many employment and labour market strategies can be used to raise the level of employment and relieve the burden on the labour market. The task of general employment policy in its various forms is to attain a permanent increase in the level of employment with a view to finally achieving full employment.

By contrast, job creation programmes have a less ambitious goal. Here the aim is to facilitate the creation of temporary employment contracts which would not have been possible without state intervention. At the same time job creation programmes will also have to keep in mind the medium- and long-term objectives, which as a side effect of the creation of short-term jobs are important for the permanent stability of employment. It is still advisable to restrict job creation programmes to the time limits of the employment contracts created by state intervention and not to place them on a level with other employment measures. The main purpose of job creation schemes is to rapidly reduce the burden on the labour market by means of creating short-term employment.

The state intervention consists in the payment of the labour costs by the State, labour costs being defined in

the widest possible sense, that is, including wages and associated employer outlay, funds for training, and also the costs arising from investments in the creation of jobs. Thus job creation schemes are basically nothing more nor less than the temporary subsidization of labour costs, in a broad sense. The jobs which the programmes are intended to create may be in the public and/or private sector.

In those cases in which the creation of jobs in the public sector is planned the programmes may be understood as one hundred per cent subsidization of labour costs. This should not be misconstrued: in some cases costs under certain items of the budget are not fully subsidized, the remaining labour costs to be subsidized under other items. For the public sector as a whole this is tantamount to one hundred per cent subsidization, except in cases in which the unemployed persons participating are required to make a direct financial contribution

As a rule the subsidization of the labour costs for jobs created in the private sector with financial participation of the enterprises concerned is considerably less than one hundred per cent. What percentage is to be subsidized is a priori equally as indefinite as the concept of cost. Either all costs incurred in connection with the creation of a temporary job or merely certain cost components may be subsidized. The two most common forms to be found in the European Community are: a) a general grant made by

the State to an enterprise to help meet the labour costs. In this case there is an obvious similarity to a general wage cost subsidy for enterprises; b) the public sector can provide a grant towards the costs of maintaining the newly created temporary jobs. This may be in the form either of a recruitment subsidy for each person employed or a marginal stock subsidy.

Job creation programmes thus defined have been used in all EC countries as a means of relieving the burden on the labour market, both in the seventies and the eighties. They take various forms, depending on their basis, e.g. the public or private sector, the sponsoring agency, the nature and amount of aid given and the volumes of the funds.

The appendix includes summarized data for all Member States on job creation schemes which played a particularly important role during the seventies and at the beginning of the eighties and continue to do so. In addition to the programme titles, the sponsors, time limits and duration of subsidization are also given. As far as possible the number of participants per year and the target groups, i.e. the selectivity with respect to the private or public sector, the branches of industry and the nature of the work in the public sector, are also shown. The selectivity of the programmes in terms of target groups such as young unemployed persons, the long-term unemployed or women is also included. We would like to add a few re-

marks with regard to specific special arrangements, in order to draw attention to particular features. Since this study is mainly concerned with the connections between job creation schemes and training, the links with training are also shown for the individual programmes. A distinction is made between different training elements (e.g. linkage of the work to previous work experience; linkage of programmes with initial vocational training courses) and the different forms of training (e.g. on-the-job training, off-the-job training, alternance training with in-firm and joint company components.

What we are evaluating are the effects of the different forms of job creation scheme on the general level of employment during their existence. However, this is not a matter of simply counting how many new jobs have been created by a scheme. This would give an inaccurate picture since it must be taken into account, for instance, that the newly created jobs may either lead to the "displacement" of existing jobs or that there is a certain amount of "jumping on the bandwagon" or "cashing in" on the part of employers.

"Cashing in" refers to the effects induced when jobs would have been created in the private sector in any case, even without public subsidies. The State support then becomes nothing more than windfall profits for firms and does not lead to the creation of additional jobs. Similar effects can also occur in the public sector when a special pro-

gramme is organized to this end and the institutions then decide not to set up regular jobs.

"Displacement" can occur when promotion in the public sector results in the loss of jobs in private enterprises. Then, while the employment level may rise in the public sector, it falls in the private sector, and the net effect is still minimal or nil. It is also conceivable that other jobs in the private sector may be forced out of existence by the new ones. Thus a job creation scheme which amounts to mere wage cost subsidization in the export sector and can only benefit some enterprises would discriminate against other companies, i.e. drive them out of competition. The companies discriminated against may be displaced from the market as a result of the job creation programmes. Within the public sector the displacement effects come to bear when institutions and enterprises cut back on existing (regular) jobs. This is a case of the subsitution of temporary jobs for permanent jobs, without there being any ensuing net effect on the labour market. Finally, depending on the design of the job creation programme effects of selection may also occur for groups of workers at an advantage or discriminated against. Thus, for example, a given programme may put young people at a particular advantage. Under certain circumstances this can prejudice older workers' chances of employment.

It has already been pointed out that there is plenty of data on the different effects and that job creation schemes and their effects on the overall situation on the labour market can be systematized. Such a study of the efficiency of a job creation scheme would seek to evaluate the success of the programmes in relieving the labour market. We shall indicate "crowding out" and "cashing in" effects in individual programmes when the data permit. Since the linking of job creation programmes with training is the main focus of this study, rather than the overall relief effect on the labour market, it will not be necessary to conduct a systematic analysis of the efficiency with regard to the labour market. More important are the target systems and effects of job creation programmes which are intended to achieve more than just take some of the burden off the labour market.

It will be seen from the country-by-country breakdown of the relevant data given in the appendix how difficult it is to systematize, evaluate and compare the different schemes in the various Community countries. However, the tables also show that, when certain elements of time, design and mechanism are included, job creation programmes have been and continue to be an important instrument of labour market and employment policy in the Member States of the European Community.

Job creation schemes and training

II. JOB CREATION PROGRAMMES AND TRAINING

1. Employment, production and training

The main concern in the development and evaluation of job creation programmes is the relief effect on the labour market. In all Community countries there is also an adherence to certain objectives which can be classified under the concept of the public interest. The aim is to design job creation programmes which are "useful" with respect to the production of goods and services. Obviously efforts are made not only to relieve the labour market but also to take into account what is produced by the work created.

Both in the academic theory on job creation programmes and in the practice of economic policy the allocative aspect, i.e. the desired employment of labour in the job creation project in order to produce certain goods and services, is named as an essential element of effective job creation programmes. Moreover, it is not enough to merely state that the kinds of work promoted should be in the public interest. A more accurate definition of the production-oriented, allocative aspect is required. However, it is difficult to find an exact definition of the public interest which is valid for several countries. What is in the public interest in a given Member State is determined by the decision-making structures, the economic background and social and cultural requirements.

In the simplest case it is a question of improving the economic and social infrastructures and compensating for the consequences of structural changes and technological development. Basically, the idea is to exclude jobs which have no economic or social significance.

In the countries of the European Community, whose economies are mainly oriented towards the free market system, the economic and social significance of production is expressed on two levels: on the one hand material needs with purchasing power are voiced via the market, and on the other the production of public goods and services is controlled by the development of a political will. Job creation programmes geared towards the allocative requirement must consider both dimensions: the politically expressed interest and the needs shown by the market. From this argument it also follows that job creation programmes cannot be designed and evaluated on the basis of a differentiation between the principles of profit or non-profit. They must also be extended to include products and services which are profitable on the market and to such results of work as the production of public goods and services either gratis or for less than cost price. In other words: job creation programmes which are oriented towards the "public interest" can include both the production of goods and services with a market value and that of non-profitable goods and services.

The connection between the allocative aspect and the relief effect on the labour market of job creation programmes is clear, at least in the sense of negative exclusion. From a purely labour market point of view it is well worth "building pyramids", as the master of state employment, Keynes, humorously remarked. Job creation programmes which concentrate on the effect on employment and ignore the production-oriented, allocative element, will, however, not meet with much approval from society.

To varying extents all Member States have areas of economic and social need and growth for which goods and services can usefully be produced by means of job creation programmes which also have effects on employment.

a) In the field of the social infrastructure there is a need for services for those social groups who are particularly dependent on public services. Child-minding facilities and playgrounds are needed for children, young people need recreational facilities. Old people and the sick need support in order to be able to cope with their particular life situations. The creation and upkeep of parks and recreational areas, the building of meeting places for various purposes, e.g. cultural events, and the restoration of places of historical and cultural interest or which are simply worth maintaining are contributions towards the development of infrastructures for cultural activities and the purposeful use of leisure time. Finally, the economic infrastructure is accorded particular importance. Examples are the re-development of city centres, tasks associated with production methods which promote environmental conservation and save energy, the creation of traffic-free or traffic-reduced zones and the improvement of the suburban traffic networks.

b) Important fields of economic growth are created by the pressure to adapt which affects all the developed economies in the Member States of the Community. The introduction of new technologies is an important task in the Community countries and affects both the development of new products and the employment of new production processes. Like catchwords concepts such as biotechnology, gene technology, the development of solar energy and robot technology illuminate those areas of tasks which must be accomplished in order to improve the competitiveness of the national economies of the countries of the European Community either individually or together in economic co-operation. The modernization of the technical means of production and the energy-saving, conservationist processing and working of natural re-

sources represent a special challenge for the individual Member States, irrespective of the peculiarities of their respective economies.

c) Finally, it should be pointed out that where there is a cyclic drop in demand certain branches of the economy - for example, the construction industry - stagnate or shrink. A transient drop in demand due to cyclical fluctuation associated with under-utilization of production capacity can lead to a rise in unemployment which can then be reduced again by job creation programmes.

The above-mentioned growth and demand areas determine which areas of tasks will be considered to be in the public interest for the purposes of job creation schemes. However, one thing should be noted in this connection. Job creation programmes have been taken to include all short-term state intervention which cannot obviate the need for forms of permanent intervention by the State. Varying levels of permanent state intervention are necessary to create and maintain adequate social, cultural and economic infrastructures in the respective Community economies. Even genuine supporters of market theory, who tend to be sceptical with regard to state intervention, will not deny that the public sector must be responsible for providing public goods and services. This applies to all those cases in which the market-oriented relations lead to results which are less than optimal from the point of view of a welfare economy. In the theory of public finance enough arguments remain uncontested which determine the areas in which goods and services must be provided collectively by permanent State intervention. On an empirical level one may argue about whether the sizes of the public sectors in the individual countries of the Community are in line with the respective economic, social and cultural conditions. It still remains uncontested that the State is also responsible for

carrying out important tasks in the field of infrastructures in free market economies. This also applies to State support for overcoming the problems associated with structural adaptation in the respective economies and the problems which arise in certain branches of the economy as a result of cyclical fluctuations.

The short-term intervention to which job creation programmes are geared cannot be a substitute for permanent State intervention to guarantee the maintenance and creation of adequate social, cultural and economic infrastructures. Job creation programmes should complement permanent State intervention, not act as a substitute for State services required on a permanent basis.

Both the relief effect on the labour market and the production oriented objectives are important for job creation programmes. Either can complement or compete with the other. A number of cases are conceivable in which the employment effect of a job creation programme could be high and the allocative function low. The converse is also conceivable, and also a suitable combination of both objectives. However, it cannot suffice to evaluate job creation programmes from the point of view of the relief effect on the labour market on the one hand and the production-related criteria on the other. Vocational training also plays a central role in job creation programmes. The particular relevance of vocational training in the programmes is made clear by two arguments: firstly, job creation programmes must be linked to the present qualifications of the unemployed, and secondly, vocational qualifications must be altered in order to improve the chances of the individual unemployed person of obtaining employment.

We have shown above that the unemployment is unevenly distributed. The rates for young people and the long-term unemployed exceed the average by varying amounts in the different Member States. Women and elderly workers usually also show above-average unemployment rates. Only the rate for the group of "prime-age male skilled workers" is below the average. The groups of workers in which the unemployed rate is above average generally have certain characteristics with respect to training. Either they have received little training and frequently have no vocational qualification or their qualifications are no longer permanently required by the employment system. Job creation programmes developed to fulfil allocative requirements by improving the pattern of production and which require unemployed persons to have qualifications which are not represented on the labour markets owing to the distribution of qualifications among the unemployed soon run aground. Likewise, from the point of view of relieving the labour market employment programmes will only be successful if the existing qualification distributions are taken into account in the design of the programmes in such a way that goal-oriented programmes are offered for those groups of unemployed which have an above-average unemployment rate.

There are also other reasons for taking into consideration existing qualification distributions of the unemployed in the design of job creation programmes. Proven results of research on the labour market indicate that a person's employment chances, i.e. his prospects of obtaining a permanent job, decrease with the duration of unemployment as a result of the loss of vocational and social skills. However, there are also macro-economic reasons for determining and maintaining the vocational qualifications of the unemployed.

Existing qualifications of workers should be considered an investment in human capital which will be destroyed if they are not used in gainful employment. From the macro-economic perspective unemployment means the destruction of human capital and job creation programmes can do something to counteract this if they use the qualifications already possessed by the unemployed as a starting point.

These arguments apply to the determination and maintenance of available vocational qualifications. However, there will frequently be more involved. Owing to the way in which the educational systems of the Community countries are structured qualifications are produced which to a greater or lesser extent are not permanently required by the respective employment system. The individual employment chances of those affected fall, and from the point of view of the overall economy this is an investment in human capital which does not pay off. If job creation programmes are geared to determining and maintaining these vocational qualifications, then the vocational training component has not been properly designed. In those cases in which vocational qualifications are not permanently required by the employment system the object of the inclusion of this aspect in a job creation programme should be to build on to and alter vocational qualifications.

Linking job creation programmes with vocational training means determining, maintening, complementing and altering vocational qualifications. It is difficult to determine which vocational qualifications should remain as they are and which should be altered also from the point of view of rationale. Considerations on the basis of the manpower approach can at least describe the problem: the production of certain goods and services which appear worthwhile from an allocative point of view requires workers with specific vocational qualifications. On the one hand we have the

current qualification structure of the unemployed and on the other an expected medium-term demand for qualifications. Potential future gaps between the demand for and supply of qualifications must be counteracted by establishing a specific linkage between job creation schemes and vocational training, so that in the medium term equilibrium is restored. However, the problem with this approach is that it is difficult to establish which qualifications are required by the employment system in the medium term. Prognoses are more likely to be false than correct. In addition, the economic interests and those of society as a whole are given higher priority than the interests of the individual as regards employment and education, and, secondly, inappropriate qualifications cannot be corrected by job creation programmes alone. The systems of initial vocational training in the Member States also produce vocational qualifications which do not permanently guarantee stable employment.

Therefore the systems of initial vocational training must also be taken into account when assessing ways of correcting inappropriate vocational qualifications by means of job creation programmes.

At all events, all these arguments to be considered in connection with the design and evaluation of job creation programmes indicate that three elements of a package of objectives should be included: job creation programmes must relieve the labour market in the short term, have production-oriented elements based on the "public interest" and fulfil vocational training functions, i.e. the maintenance, upgrading and alteration of vocational qualifications.

Existing job creation programmes must be evaluated on the basis of this "magic triangle" and new perspectives developed. Connections and possible contradictions between the function of relieving the labour market and the allocative element have already been pointed out above. The potential conflicts between objectives become even more complicated when the training function of job creation programmes is included. It is therefore worthwhile taking a closer look at the role vocational qualifications and training play in the design and evaluation of job creation programmes.

2. The role of vocational training

In the systems of objectives of job creation schemes in the Member States of the European Community the relief effect on the labour market resulting from the creation of fixed-term jobs and the orientation towards jobs in the public interest have priority. Affirmed intentions to link job creation programmes with vocational training measures were not adopted until relatively late. The regulations issued by the Federal Republic of Germany on the promotion of the creation of fixed-term jobs (§ 91 of the Labour Promotion Law) can be quoted here as an example. These clauses provide for the promotion of jobs which are in the public interest by the creation of fixed-term jobs with funds supplied by the Federal Labour Office. Clear emphasis is laid on the argument in favour of the public interest: jobs which are suitable for preparing, making possible or supplementing measures for structural improvement or for improving the social infrastructure are to be given priority.

There are no explicit provisions for the linkage of the measures for the creation of short-term employment with vocational training. § 91 of the Labour Promotion Law merely states that priority should be given to jobs which improve the chances of the unemployed of obtaining permanent employment by raising their levels of qualification and to jobs which provide work for the long-term unemployed. While this definition of objectives allows for the utilization of the existing qualificationsof the workers in question and provides for the improvement of their individual chances of employment, there is no clear reference to vocational training.

It was a long time before the specific role of vocational training and the associated emphasis on the training function of job creation schemes were given consideration in the Federal Republic of Germany. The directive of the board of administration of the Federal Labour Office of March 16, 1982 on job creation schemes includes a more specific reference to the training function of job creation programmes:

§ 3, Sub-section 2: Efforts shall be made to place unemployed workers in projects in which their vocational knowledge and skills can be maintained or added to.

§ 5, Sub-section 2: Work which is in the interests of maintaining or upgrading vocational knowledge and skills, and programmes which combine vocational training or social-pedagogic services with the work shall be given priority in so far as this is conducive to the permanent re-integration of the workers in accordance with their qualifications.

Similar declarations of the intention to promote the training function of job creation schemes are also to be found in other Community countries. It is noticeable that the role of vocational qualification in job creation programmes is relatively limited. The training element is consists in the maintenance and upgrading of vocational knowledge and skills. Only in a few cases is linkage with conversion training (the adaptation of vocational qualifications to altered fields of activity) desired. Upgrading training and re-training are not usually linked with job creation programmes. In order to assess the rationality of this concept in terms of educational economics it is necessary

to distinguish between certain levels of vocational qualifications. These levels are determined by the significance of vocational qualifications within the employment system now and in the long term:

a) For cyclical reasons there is at present no demand for certain vocational qualifications in the employment systems. If the demand for them can be expected to rise again after a certain acceptable period then job creation programmes serve to maintain them. In this case the job creation schemesare mainly concerned with training for maintaining or adding to vocational knowledge and skills.

b) In the case of some vocational qualifications there will also be no demand in the long term for structural reasons. In such cases there is little to be gained by providing training for maintaining or upgrading qualifications in combination with employment programmes. In other cases where there is a demand for the vocational qualifications which will also be needed in the medium and longer term the educational systems do not provide enough workers with these qualifications at present. The structural transformation within the employment system - the conversion to the new technologies - is leading to the development of the new vocational qualifications which the employment system needs to be able to adapt to the new structural requirements. The main emphasis of the policy measures should in these cases be in the field of initial vocational training, however, the combination of further training for adaptation and re-training with job creation schemes is definitely worthwhile.

c) Where linkage of job creation projects with vocational training is really needed are those areas in which the objective is to increase workers' chances of obtaining

permnent employment by maintaining and adapting their qualifications in cases in which their chances on the labour market as an individual are comparatively poor owing to inadequate training. In these cases it is a question of improving the chances of poorly qualifed workers on the labour market in programmes which can, for example, be oriented towards certain target groups such as the long-term unemployed and young people with a low level of training. However, there is only a point in maintaining or upgrading and adapting vocational qualifications in combination with job creation programmes if the there is going to be a permanent demand for the qualifications in question on the labour market.

In the past the role of vocational training has been discussed in connection with levels of policy - educational policy, job creation programmes, etc. The purpose of vocational training is to equip workers with the skills necessary to obtain permanent employment, open up new spheres of life and make it possible to achieve personal goals in life. In this specific context at least two further qualifying elements - apart from the functionally oriented skills - play a role: basic skills and social skills.

Little is achieved by combining job creation programmes with basic training. Only a few basic skills can be learned in a temporary job. From the viewpoint of educational policy this task should fall to the system of general education. This does not apply to the social skills. Depending on the level of technological development and the cultural and social milieus in the Member States different abilities will be considered to come under the heading of social skills. The range extends from work discipline and the acceptance of hierarchies to the expectance that a worker will participate in decision-making at his workplace or be satisfied with his job. Job creation programmes can

also be important for maintaining and imparting social skills. At the same time this requires a certain design of job creation programme: job creation programmes will be unsuccessful if they merely discipline workers to work without helping them to see the point of what they are doing. This argument also leads to the conclusion that job creation schemes must be developed and implemented on the basis of voluntary participation.

The above arguments in favour of those areas of vocational training which can be usefully combined with job creation schemes, in contrast to other measures of educational policy, are summarized in Table 4. On the policy level the table differentiates between general education, initial vocational training, maintenance and/or upgrading training, conversion training and re-training. The crosses in the table show which kind of training is suitable for solving which kind of problem. Policies for the provision of "general education" refer to basic skills and social skills and policies on initial vocational training are also concerned with those vocational skills for which for structural reasons there is a permanent disequilibrium between supply and demand on the labour markets. This also applies to the field of re-training. The genuine link between job creation schemes and vocational training lies in the maintenance and expansion of conversion training and, within limits, re-training, although in each case the priority must be given to different sorts of skills. The maintenance and upgrading of vocational skills in combination with job creation schemes affects imbalances on labour markets due to cyclical fluctuations (temporary falls in demand) and those in target groups such as the long-term unemployed and young people, to a certain extent also women, for whom there are recognizable group-specific training shortfalls. In contrast, adaptation training is directed more at the structural components.

Table 4 Output-Oriented Labour Market and Educational Policies

Policy levels	General education	Initial vocational training	Maintenance of or addition to vocational qualifications	Conversion training	Re-training
Vocational training					
- cyclical imbalances			X		
- structural imbalances		X		X	X
- group-specific deficits			X		
Basic skills	X				
Social skills	X	X	X		

These arguments show that job creation programmes cannot be expected to supply the solutions to all vocational training problems. Even when job creation schemes and vocational training are linked genuine education policy does not become superfluous. The arguments indicate that job creation programmes must be combined with vocational training in different ways. The respective rationales behind the programmes will be determined by the systems of general education and initial vocational training in the different Member States.

This also applies to questions which must be asked in connection with the methods of imparting skills. At least three of these deserve mention: the imparting of vocational skills in job creation programmes can take place outside of and independently of the employer-employee relationship, or in and with the institutions providing the employment, and finally, it can be a combination of on-the-job training and socio-pedagogic support in the institution sponsoring the project together with a joint-company or continuing training centre. The kind of organization (this will be discussed in more detail below) suitable in the individual case depends on the system of initial vocational training. It can prove worthwhile to place particular emphasis on those forms of organization which are not represented in the initial vocational training system.

It is difficult to make an empirical evaluation of the training elements of existing job creation schemes in the Member States. One way of evaluating the training function of job creation programmes empirically is to establish the integration quotas for individuals or social groups. Integration quotas measure the improvement of group-specific or individual labour market prospects attained by means of job creation programmes as a result of the training elements included. They determine the per-

centage of participants in given programmes who obtain a permanent job after successfully completing their courses. This does not necessarily have to be the job on the programme, on the contrary, it is more a question of evidence of the taking up of permanent employment by participants after having completed the job creation programme.

Integration quotas can be used to measure of the improvement of the employment prospects of an individual or group of obtaining employment and are thus a means of assessing the success of job creation schemes as regards training. However, from the debate on the segmentation of labour markets it is known that the consolidation of sub-labour markets and prospects of obtaining gainful employment are not only determined by training elements job creation schemes. Differences in qualifications are only partly responsible for differences in chances of obtaining employment. Other factors are also discernible. These influencing factors range from crass discrimination (for example, in the case of women and foreign workers and minorities) to the career patterns and behaviour on the job expected by companies and the attitudes of the workers themselves towards employment. Vocational training will not in all cases be sufficient to break down the social barriers between rigidly segmented sectors of labour markets. This is not the subject of this study, since we are only concerned with the role of vocational training in connection with job creation programmes. However, it is important to realize that even with vocational training it will not be possible to remove all barriers between structured sectors of the labour market. It will remain an important task for an emancipatory educational policy to assume the role of social policy in breaking down the inter-segmental barriers which are not determined by training differences.

However, the significance of vocational training in combination with job creation schemes should not be underestimated, either. On the contrary, its importance arises from the role it plays in:

- raising the employment prospects of workers with a low level of training,
- permitting the maintenance and upgrading of vocational and social skills, which are expedient when gaps between the supply of and demand for qualifications on the labour markets are due to cyclical fluctuation and
- removing existing imbalances between the supply of and demand for vocational qualifications on the labour markets which are due to structural causes.

3. Means of intervention: proposal for a systematic approach

In all Community countries job creation programmes have played an important role in the seventies and eighties as policies for creating fixed-term employment. Their objectives are related to the functions of relieving the labour market, allocation and training. On which of these elements the emphasis is laid and the effects of the programmes vary: for some of them the function of relieving the labour market is the main objective, while for others the allocative and training functions are more important. In the following sections the job creation programmes in the Member States of the European Community are presented and evaluated. This was done on the basis of a defined systematic approach.

The term employment-oriented job creation programmes refers to the packages of measures in which the relief of the labour market is of particular importance. This does not mean that the allocative and training functions are ignored. However, these programmes are designed more with the intention of giving unemployed persons at least a temporary employment contract. The allocative, production-oriented aspect and the training elements play a lesser role.

In the following sections not only the employment-oriented job creation schemes are examined but also the schemes in which the main emphasis is placed on the training function rather than on the short-term relief effect on the labour market. Strictly speaking only job creation programmes intended to provide short-term relief for the labour market should be included in the analysis. In many cases this would simply lead to the conclusion that the links with training are either few or insufficient. On the other hand, in the different Member States there are combinations of labour market and educational policies, with varying emphasis on each, which provide strong links between the creation of temporary jobs and vocational training. In these cases - which are referred to as training-oriented job creation schemes in what follows - the short-term relief effect on the labour market is not so important, on the contrary, vocational training measures are expressly provided for, from the planning stage onwards. Both the relief effect on the labour market and the allocative function play almost a secondary role. Moreover, the training-oriented programmes are not merely schemes for training unemployed persons, since employed persons are also target groups for the educational and labour market oriented programmes.

Finally, there are new forms of intervention in some Member States whose aim is to support the initiative of the unemployed in the independent creation of their own jobs. Workers are awarded grants for a fixed period for the purpose of starting their own venture. These packages will be referred to as autonomy-oriented job creation schemes in this report. These include programmes such as those entitled "Chômeur-créateur" in France and "Start your own business" in Ireland. These job creation schemes are an attempt to mobilize the private initiative of unemployed workers and encourage them to start their own businesses. The State subsidies are thus closely correlated to the capital outlay required to create new jobs. Connections with vocational training are also detectable in this kind of programme, for example, where training programmes are provided for the future managers or owners of businesses.

On the basis of this approach three forms of labour market-oriented and vocational training programmes will be differented between in the following sections:

1. Employment-oriented job creation schemes: these are programmes in which the function of relieving the labour market is predominates in both the aims and effects.

2. Training-oriented job creation schemes: the programme designs and their effects are clearly geared towards the vocational qualifications and the training of workers. The target groups include not only unemployed but also employed workers.

3. Autonomy-oriented job creation schemes: the aim of these programmes is to promote the initiative of unemployed workers in the setting up of their own businesses, which will be profitable in the medium and long term.

In the following sections the programmes are presented and evaluated. The evaluation is based on the criteria resulting from the economic and social rationales behind the objectives of the job creation schemes:

a) The majority of the programmes are directed at specific target groups on the labour market. These target groups are determined by age, sex and the duration of unemployment. In this case it is a question of establishing whether the programmes have been suitably designed for the target groups.

b) Since job creation schemes are geared towards work which is "in the public interest" their allocative, production-oriented element must be investigated. The allocative efficiency (output orientation) is measured on the basis of certain features of the production of goods and services promoted by the job creation schemes.

c) In addition to the orientation towards the target groups and the determination of the output we shall also be assessing the desired level of qualification. The orientation towards the distribution of vocational qualifications among the unemployed and the support for training for the maintenance and upgrading of qualifications, adaptation training and re-training will be evaluated in detail.

d) In addition to the orientation towards target groups, the assessment of the allocative efficiency and the aimed for qualification level the form of training must also be evaluated. This includes different aspects: the express orientation towards vocational qualifications taking into account the level of qualification, links to

initial vocational training and the way in which the vocational training is organized (in-firm, inter-company or alternance elements),

Detailed data on the most important job creation schemes in the Member States of the European Community in the seventies and eighties are given in an appendix containing background material to this report. The following evaluations were drawn up on the basis of the programmes listed in the appendix.

[redacted]

[redacted]

[redacted]

[redacted]

Employment-oriented job creation schemes

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III. EMPLOYMENT-ORIENTED JOB CREATION PROGRAMMES

1. Direct job creation programmes

Employment-oriented job creation schemes have played an important role as essential instruments of policy in the relief of the labour markets in the Member States of the European Community in the seventies and eighties. The wide range of schemes employed have varied with respect to the form of state intervention, the extent to which the labour costs are subsidized and the basis on which the labour costs are assessed in the respective programme.

In order to obtain a better overall view of the different types of programme we shall distinguish between direct and indirect employment-oriented job creation schemes. The term direct job creation scheme refers to all forms of state intervention which are geared towards creating jobs for the production of public goods and services. Indirect job creation schemes promote the creation of temporary jobs for the market-oriented production of goods and services. As mentioned above, classifying the programmes in this way is not always the same as differentiating between between jobs created in the public and private sectors. There is also no advantage in classifying employment-oriented job creation schemes according to the level of the grants towards labour costs they pay. Whether the grants towards the labour costs (these are usually wages and salaries) are awarded to the private sector or to public administrations, they are always basically an income subsidy. Those granted to the private sector are usually lower than those given to

the public sector. The basic approach of employment-oriented job creation schemes in such cases is thus geared towards the allocative effect of state intervention: for the direct job creation schemes the public interest defined as the production of public goods and services and for the indirect job creation schemes as the market-oriented production of goods and services.

The direct job creation schemes are the traditional means of achieving short-term relief of the labour market in the countries of the European Community. Most of them having been instituted in the seventies to control problems considered to be of a cyclical nature, the programmes are directed at target groups on the labour markets which have been particularly badly affected by unemployment. There are also job creation schemes with a non-selective design from which all unemployed persons can benefit. Other selection criteria used by direct job creation schemes are an orientation towards output, the level of vocational training aimed at and the organizational form of the training. Table 5 gives an overview of the most important direct job creation schemes in the countries of the European Community. The selection criteria employed by the programmes - in terms of objectives and effects - are shown by crosses. A cross in the table shows that the objectives and effects of the programme are clearly oriented towards the respective variables. If there is no cross, this denotes that no explicit binding of objectives to certain groups or areas or chains of effects can be identified. Table 6 gives brief descriptions of important characteristics of job creation schemes in Member States.

a) It is noticeable that a large number of the direct job creation schemes are geared towards young people. This applies for countries such as Belgium, Denmark, France and Ireland, and to a certain extent also for Ireland,

Table 5
DIRECT JOB CREATION PROGRAMMES - Selection criteria

Member State	Programme	Period	Target groups: young people	Target groups: elderly workers	Target groups: long-term unemployed	Target groups: women	Form of training: express linkage	Form of training: joint-company	Form of training: in-firm	Form of training: alternance	Level of training: low	Level of training: medium	Level of training: high	Output orientation: traditional	Output orientation: stable	Output orientation: future	Other objectives
Belgium	Job creation in the public sector (Mise au travail par les pouvoirs publics)	Start 75							x								
	Special programme for temporary employment (Cadre spécial temporaire)	Start 77	x	x	x				x								
Denmark	Jobs for the unemployed (Arbejdstilbud til ledige)	Start 10/78	x	x			x	x	x								
	Directive on job creation (Gelskabelzeordningen) incl. expiring parts of programme instituted by Law No. 488)	Start 1/83	x	x			x	x	x						x	x	new products
Federal Republic of Germany	Job creation programmes	Start 69		x					x								
	Federal Government programme for regions with special employment problems	8/79-1/81		x					x			x	x		x	x	incl. new social services
	Priority area 3: Job creation programmes for the improvement of the social services and social infrastructure.								x			x	x		x	x	
	DM 100 million programme for job creation in Hamburg	Start 12/82															
France	Employment to the community benefit (Emploi d'utilité collective)	4/79-4/82	x						x				x		x	x	jobs for publ. benefit with exp. character
	Programme for promotion of local initiative (Emploi initiative locale)	Start 10/81	x						x				x		x	x	
Greece	Programme for the construction industry	1/82-6/84							x		x			x	x		public buildings
Ireland	Environmental Improvement Scheme	1/77-12/82	x						x		x			x			environmental conservation
	Environmental Works Scheme	Start 1/83	x				x	x	x		x			x	x		
Italy	Community building and re-afforestation programmes for youth employment (Legge 1° giugno 1977 - 285 prorrendimenti per l' occupazione giovanile - Jobs in the public sector	Start 49 6/77-6/81							x x		x			x	x		regional from 78 onwards
	Job creation programmes in Campania and Basilicata	4/81-6/83	x				x	x	x		x			x	x		regional
Luxembourg	Extraordinary employment in the general interest (Travaux extraordinaires d'intérêt général) Program for temporary auxiliary jobs (Division d'auxiliaires temporaires)	Start 7/75							x		x			x			
		Start 7/78	x						x			x				x	
Netherlands	Programme for the creation of temporary employment (Tijdelijke Arbeitsplaatsenregeling)			x					x								
	1979 job creation programme (Werkgelegenheidsverruimende Maatregel 1979)	Start 1/79		x					x								with promotion of part-time work
United Kingdom	Special Temporary Employment Programme	7/76-3/81		x					x		x			x			selected regions
	Community Enterprise Programme	4/80-1/83		x			x	x	x		x			x			
	Community Programme	Start 10/82	x	x			x	x	x						x	x	

Table 6 Indirect job creation schemes: characteristics

Member state	Integration quotas in %	Employment effect	Organization	Qualifications
Belgium		Strong	All decisions on projects are made by the govt. in agreement with the regional employment committees, in which employers and trade unions are represented	Poor; over 50 % have low level of qualifications, but only the best are chosen from the levels available
Denmark			The regional employment committees together with the placement agencies	Low and medium
Federal Republic of Germany			The sponsors apply to the regional labour exchange districts for funds. The unemployed are proposed to the sponsors by the labour exchangers. The firms can refuse.	Low, approx. 60 % un- and semi-skilled workers, particularly in the agricultural and forestry sector
France		weak	Sponsors apply for funds from Ministry of Employment, mainly small and medium enterprises	High, just under 60 % of the participants have an advanced school-leaving certificate, mainly jobs with and experimental character in cultural and social fields
Greece			Complicated application procedure, since seldom taken advantage of	Low, unskilled construction work
Ireland			Very little co-ordination. Co-ordination: Ministry of the Environment, Youth Employment Agency, AnCO	Low, simple unskilled jobs. Training elements in more recent schemes, sometimes with a degree of alternance
Italy			Numerical placement system, regional disparities. Planned re-structuration of the organization only slow	Low, simple work in the building sector and services. No training elements
Luxembourg			The local communities and other public corporations make proposals to the government. The govt. concludes the contracts with the sponsors	Low, unskilled jobs in road construction, re-allocation of arable land and grape harvest
Netherlands	35	Utilization under 100 %	Labour exchange authority. Part-time jobs offered for young people, longer promotion for old workers	Low
United Kingdom	10		Often local significance. Project design usually has a legitimating function	Low/medium, in some cases with in-firm and joint-company training components, however, attendance is very low

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Luxembourg and, at the beginning of the eighties also for the United Kingdom. These countries are particularly badly affected by youth unemployment. It is also noticeable that in Belgium, Denmark, the Federal Republic of Germany, the Netherlands and the United Kingdom large-scale direct job creation schemes have been introduced for the long-term unemployed. In Belgium there are special direct job creation schemes for women.

b) If we analyze the types of goods and services on which the jobs created by the direct job creation schemes are dependent we find disturbingly traditional programme designs. In Greece, Ireland, Italy and Luxembourg and particularly in the United Kingdom, the programmes are oriented towards products which require only simple skills and are concentrated on cleaning up parks, simple restoration work on public buildings and similar activities. The concept of the traditional programme design has been chosen in order to show how limited the definition of the allocative function is: the "public interest" is restricted to "emergency work" with no detectable moves towards tackling problems of structural adaptation in the fields of the social, cultural and economic infrastructures. Certain programmes in Denmark, France and some in the United Kingdom, Greece and Italy which are regarded as having a "stable product orientation" are geared more towards meeting a new and urgent demand for public goods and services. The restoration of public buildings, environmental conservation measures and important work for the common welfare prove that direct job creation schemes can also be used to improve infrastructural conditions. However, only a few direct job creation schemes are oriented towards the production of such public goods and services the need for which has as yet not been politically voiced, although this is to be expected in the future. The devel-

opment of new products and production processes and the provision of new social services with a secure future, are only rarely desired. Examples can be found in Denmark and France and a few in the Federal Republic of Germany and Luxembourg.

c) As a result of the traditional allocative effect of the direct job creation schemes towards traditional fields the level of vocational qualifications required is low. Direct job creation schemes are aimed at unskilled and semi-skilled workers. This type of design is particularly common in Greece, Ireland, Luxembourg and the United Kingdom. Direct job creation schemes for workers with medium level qualifications (skilled workers) are the exception. Some are to be found in the Federal Republic of Germany and Luxembourg. In Germany and France direct job creation schemes have also been developed for more highly qualified workers - i.e. with university degrees or technical college diplomas or higher vocational qualifications.

d) There is only very rarely an express link between direct job creation schemes and vocational training. In this case the words express link mean the elaboration and implementation of vocational training measures during the job creation scheme. Programmes in Denmark, and some in the Federal Republic of Germany, Ireland, Italy and the United Kingdom include a requirement for linkage between the job creation scheme and vocational training. Often enough, however, these requirements are mere declarations of intent. They are restricted to the imparting of vocational skills on a "learning by doing" basis, which is referred to in Table 5 as the in-firm form of vocational training. Where a direct job creation scheme does contain explicit provision for vocational training it takes place at best by means of

learning on the job, and usually there is not even a training plan. Little has been done to develop links between job creation schemes and training in joint-company training centres. Exceptions are a few direct job creation schemes in Denmark, Ireland and the United Kingdom. Finally, it is also conceivable, that the promotion of vocational qualifications could be linked to direct job creation schemes by means of alternance training, i.e. between the institution carrying out the job creation scheme and the joint-company training centres. No Member State has included this in a direct job creation scheme. Where direct job creation schemes do include vocational training in joint-company training centres, as is the case in a few exceptions, the training takes place either before or after the actual work in the direct job creation scheme. Alternating forms of vocational training are not provided within the direct job creation schemes themselves.

To illustrate the above arguments three schemes in Denmark, the Federal Republic of Germany and the United Kingdom respectively are briefly described below. They are good examples of the different ways in which direct job creation schemes are linked with vocational training.

In Denmark the aim of the JSO scheme is to combine "initial in-firm instruction" with out-of-firm training. The design of the scheme is due to the fact that the projects are strongly oriented towards young people with little training. The majority of the participants in this employment scheme (70 % in 1981) are unskilled young people. These are followed by young people who have broken off an apprenticeship. A small percentage are semi-skilled workers ("special" workers). The training element may therefore not be limited to the maintenance of skills but must also do something to add to them. This is done mainly by means

of out-of-firm training. The different options offered in connection with the direct job creation scheme (JSO) are a vocational course (EiFu course), a course offered by one of various schools (technical school, commercial college, school of general education) or a new training course, for instance, in re-cycling. However, overall the training opportunities offered by the JSO programme are hardly taken advantage of by the participants: only about 13 % of the young people taking part in community employment projects in 1981 also did a course in general education or initial vocational training.

In the Federal Republic of Germany expectations of the linkage of job creation and vocational training are high, at least, this was so at the beginning of the eighties. The job creation schemes are supposed to give priority to the projects in which vocational skills can be maintained and added to by means of job-linked courses, at least on an in-firm level. It would appear that no more than lip service is paid to this objective. Often no on-the-job or vocational training programmes are offered, on the contrary, the workers taking part in the job creation scheme are frequently employed to do work for which they are over-qualified. In a number of cases (according to estimations between 15 % and 30 %) the requirements for the jobs provided for are lower than the actual qualifications of the participants. There is also a further argument: since about 36 % of the young people under 20 years of age having taken part in a job creation scheme did not even have a school-leaving certificate from a "Hauptschule"[1] and 75 % had not completed vocational training of any kind, the job creation schemes at serve at most as financial aid for young people who have not managed to obtain a training place. Thus it is to be expected that these young people

[1] **Hauptschule**: lowest level of general-education secondary school

will not try harder to find a place to train, and that they may even give up completely. As the job creation schemes do not explicitly provide for training programmes and the job-specific skills attainable are minimal, from the point of view of the promotion of vocational training the job creation schemes might be regarded as detrimental rather than helpful.

This applies to a lesser extent to direct job creation schemes in the Federal Republic of Germany which are included in special programmes e.g. Priority Measure (Schwerpunkt 3). Priority Measure 3 expressly calls for the linkage of job creation and vocational training in the social services. Assessments have shown that as many as just under 30 % of the participants were satisfied with their work (maintenance of skills). Just over 50 % of the participants expressed the opinion that they had gained experience in new vocational fields (upgrading and updating training). However, the negative assessments are also clear enough: just under 20 % of the participants had the feeling that they were doing work which was below their level of ability and that their level of qualification was declining, and that they had been vocationally demoted, and roughly 20 % also thought that they would have more difficulty in becoming re-integrated back into their own occupation. Thus with regard to the training elements in direct job creation schemes the high aspirations of the Federal German labour policy can thus not be lived up to: owing to the lack of training elements in job creation schemes and the fact that the work has frequently little to do with the participants' own occupation (employment below ability) it is rather unlikely that the participants' levels of vocational qualification will be raised.

The development of direct job creation schemes in the United Kingdom illustrates how learning processes take place in labour market and vocational training policy. The Community Enterprise Programme (CEP) was elaborated as a result of criticism of an older programme entitled STEP, was to put greater emphasis on the training function of job creation schemes by incorporating a training element, albeit on a small scale. The emphasis is on the maintenance or renewal of the vocational qualifications which the participants already have. The training element consists mainly in the supervision of the work by a qualified person who takes part in the project him-/herself as "supervisor". Sometimes training is offered at joint-company centres, the condition being that the training be directly relevant to the trainee's work and that it does not extend beyond the period during which the person is covered by the scheme. However, few workers take advantage of this training. Only a thousandth of the funds made available are actually used. More recent developments in direct job creation schemes in the United Kingdom illustrate the learning process of political decision-makers even better: not only is the scale of the Community Programme substantially higher than that of previous programmes, but its objectives are also much more explicit than those of the Community Enterprise Programme. The concept of community benefit has been more closely defined with the specific objective of not allowing the corwding out of existing jobs in the private sector. The new programme places greater emphasis on the training elements. The amount of training provided by joint company centres has been increased and the sponsors of the projects have been given more support for training. Finally, it is planned to create a link between the Community Programme and the Adult Training Strategy. A quarter of those on the Community Programme are to receive training at a joint company centre under these provisions on training.

Notwithstanding a few exceptions the assessment of the direct job creation schemes is not very encouraging: the work is oriented towards a concept of community benefit which in practice is reduced to simple jobs for unskilled and semi-skilled workers and the nature of the work is more likely to result in dead-end jobs than vocational training, At best schemes do no more than maintain a low level of vocational and social skills among young people and the long-term unemployed. Even the employment effects should not be over-estimated. The programmes do not generally attain their planned employment effects. This also has something to do with organizatory issues. In some cases the application procedures are complicated and bureaucratic and in others numerical assignment systems (when unemployed persons are assigned to projects by the labour exchange) put a damper on the enthusiasm of the project sponsors when they cannot turn down the unemployed allotted to them (Italy).

As far as evaluations are available on the subject of whether or not persons having taken part in job creation schemes can be given permanent jobs when the programmes come to an end there is also little room for optimism. The integration rates for schemes in, for example, the United Kingdom and the Netherlands are between 18 % and 35 %. The low levels of vocational qualification of the participants and the lack of vocational training during the programmes doubtlessly contribute to this situation. The employment prospects of participants in direct job creation schemes are not appreciably raised since usually no training is offered in the schemes, and, when it is, it does not stretch to more than maintenance of the usually poor standard of qualifications of the workers, and, moreover, in the majority of cases there is no teaching of new skills or conversion training. Finally, the trend towards a deterioration of qualification levels (dequalification) should betaken into account. This occurs when, as empirical data

for the Federal Republic of Germany, for example, would appear to show, workers are required to do jobs which do not correspond to their qualifications.

2. Indirect job creation programmes

Indirect job creation schemes have been defined as measures of labour market policy designed to create fixed-term jobs in the field of market-oriented production of goods and services. As a rule the indirect job creation schemes are aimed at the private sector, but there are exceptions. Examples in Denmark show that the community sector can also be market-oriented. Thus, as with the direct job creation schemes there are areas of overlap between the public and private sectors. However, the indirect programmes are mainly geared towards creating jobs in the private sector.

As with the direct programmes the State intervention takes the form of partial or complete re-imbursement of labour costs. However, usually less funds are made available for subsidizing the incomes of the workers to be recruited than in the public sector. In some cases, as in France, for instance, a firm is merely exempted from the obligation to pay incidental wage costs such as social insurance contributions.

Table 7 gives an overview of important indirect job creation schemes in the respective Member States of the Community. It was put together according to the same criteria as used for the direct job creation schemes. The crosses denote express chains of goals and effects with respect to identifiable target groups, links and organizational forms of training, the levels of vocational qualifications of the workers and the allocative aspect. Some characteristics of indirect job creation schemes are summarized in Table 8.

Table 7
INDIRECT JOB CREATION PROGRAMMES - Selection criteria

Member State	Programme	Period	Target groups: young people	Target groups: elderly workers	Target groups: long-term unemployed	Target groups: women	Form of training: apprenti linkage	Form of training: joint-company	Form of training: in-firm	Form of training: alternance	Level of training: low	Level of training: medium	Level of training: high	Output orientation: traditional	Output orientation: stable future	Other objectives
Belgium	Conversion premium (Prime d'adaptation et de réadaptation	10/79-3/80	x		x				x		x					Small and medium enterprises, enterprises with fewer than 38 h/week
Denmark	Job offers for the unemployed (Arbejdstilbudtil)	Start 10/78	x		x		x	x	x						x x	
	Directive on job creation (Golskabelzeorordnungen)	Start 1/83	x		x		x	x	x							New products
Federal Republic of Germany	Induction grants (Einarbeitungszuschusse)	Start 1969							x		x					
	Job creation schemes for elderly workers (ABM fur ältere Arbeitnehmer)	Start 1969		x					x		x					
	Labour market policy scheme of the Federal Govt. for regions with special employment problems, Priority Area 2: Re-integration of the unskilled and long-term unemployed (Arbeitspolitisches Programm, Schwerpunkt 2)	8/79-1/81			x	x	x		x		x					Regional
France	National employment pacts (Pactes pour l'emploi I, II, III); Plan for the future of youth (Plan avenir jeunes)															
	- Integration grant (exonérations embauche)	7/77-6/82	x		x				x							Small and medium enterprises
	- Integration aid for elderly workers (Aide chomeurs agés)	7/79-6/82		x					x							
	- Premium for taking on the first employee in a craft enterprise (Prime à l'embauche du premier salarié l'artisanat)	7/79-6/82							x						x	1st worker in craft enterprise
Greece	Scheme entitled: "2 000 jobs for young workers"	9/82-8/84	x			x			x			x			x x	
Ireland	Employment Incentive Scheme	Start 2/77	x		x				x					x	x	
	Dublin Inner City Employment Programme	1/81							x							Stigmatized unemployed persons from Dublin's inner city area
Italy	Youth employment schemes (Leggio 1° Giugno 1977 et 285 Prorredimenti per l'occupazione iovanile)															
	- Employment without fixed term	6/77-6/81	x			x			x	x						
Luxembourg	Anti-crisis programme (Division anti-crise)	Start 1977									**			x		Steel industry
	- Steel programme															
	Programme for the temporarily unemployed (Division d'auxiliaires temporaires)	Start 8/78	x						x					x		
Netherlands	Promotion scheme for trial engagement of long-term unemployed persons (Experimenteel). Regeling Plaatsing Langduring werkloseen															
	Wage cost subsidization of 30 % (30 % Loonkostensubsidie)			x	x				x							
	Lohnkostensubvention für Jugendliche (Loonkosten Subsidie-Regeling Jeugdigen)			x		x										
United Kingdom	Temporary Employment Subsidy	8/75-3/79	x		x				x			x			x	Workers threatened with redundancy
	Small Firms Employment Subsidy	7/77-4/80	x		x				x					x	x	

Table 8 Direct job creation schemes: characteristics

Member state	Integration quotas in %	Employment effect	Organization	Qualifications
Belgium		Considerable	Linkage with limited-term employment contracts, first jobs, small/medium enterprises, organization somewhat complicated	Young people, linkage with ONEM courses, trained workers for initial employment
Denmark	80 Better placement prospects in private sector		Decentralized and regionalized, co-operation with placement agency, also trade unions and works-level co-operation committees	Unskilled/semi-skilled workers, joint-company training components with EIFU and EIFL courses, sequential, only short periods of training
Federal Republic of Germany	80	Little effect on the labour market	Placement in stable jobs, the firms in some cases (SP2*) being required to keep worker in permanent job after end of subsidization	Disproportionate use of workers without vocational qualifications in services and manufacturing occupations (SP2*, unskilled and semi-skilled workers and the long-term unemployed hardly affected
France			Social insurance contributions paid, smaller and medium enterprises receive particular support	Young people, women the long-term unemployed, no training
Greece		High success rate, growth-oriented	Some of funds provided by the ESF, scheme unbureaucratic and with high level of information	Young people, workers with work and vocational experience, in some cases also unskilled young people
Ireland	55	Approx. 15 % in form of relief of the labour market	Some of funds provided by the ESF, requirement: rise in employment, incremental subsidy	Young people without vocational experience. No training elements. In some cases orientation towards social policy on stigmatized workers
Italy		Little relief of the labour market	Heavy administrative involvement, numerical placement system, bureaucratic obstacles	Young people with work and vocational experience
Luxembourg			Company-dependent with involvement of the trade ions and/or State	Workers under the threat of redundancy
Netherlands			Low level of utilization, only 35 %, degressive promotion, contract binding for 1 year, on some cases linkage with part-time employment.	
United Kingdom		66 to 40 % in form of relief effect on labour market	In some cases oriented towards relieving labour market, in others new employees, regional differences	

*SP2 = Schwerpunkt (Priority Area) 2

a) In the majority of Member States the indirect job creation schemes are also for the most part selectively designed for certain target groups . The main target groups are the long-term unemployed and young people, and in some cases, as in the Federal Republic of Germany, for instance, the creation of jobs for elderly workers is promoted.

b) In the indirect programmes the allocative aspect, labelled "output orientation" in the table, is more strongly oriented towards and has a greater effect on those branches of the economy in which an extended decline in demand has led to substantial falls in the rate of employment. This orientation and effect of the programmes on the "crisis areas of the economy" also show that the indirect job creation schemes are often used as a means of subsidizing firms making workers redundant because of a permanent or cyclical fall in demand, or which it is feared will have to lay off a large number of workers. Examples of this are to be found in the United Kingdom, where for a time there was a so-called Temporary Employment Subsidy Programme. The purpose of this programme was to support the retention of jobs in those branches of British industry which were particularly badly affected by pressure to adapt to the world economic situation. There are also examples of programmes designed to subsidize crisis areas in Luxembourg (anti-crisis programme for the steel industry). There are only a few examples of indirect job creation schemes in countries of the European Community which are particularly geared towards the promotion of industries with a secure future. Some exceptions are to be found in Denmark and Greece. The purpose of the French experiment with the granting of premiums for the first employee recruited by a crafts enterprise was to achieve structural effects with a view to promoting the crafts.

c) In as far as selectivity with regard to the level of qualification is discernible at all in the indirect job creation schemes, they tend to promote mainly jobs with a low vocational qualification requirement. Most of the participants are unskilled and semi-skilled workers. This does not apply in all countries. In the Netherlands and Greece selective programmes are also aimed at workers with medium-level qualifications, for example on the level of the skilled worker.

d) The indirect job creation schemes only very seldom include express provisions for links with vocational training. In some cases in the Federal Republic of Germany and Denmark there is a demand for particular promotion of projects which expressly include a linkage of the work with vocational training. However, in the great majority of cases the indirect programmes support applications which are independent of training. The training aspect is either not detectable or hardly developed.

e) As a result of this lack of training elements in the in most Member States usually no vocational training is provided in connection with the indirect job creation schemes. Vocational skills can only be acquired through the work itself, if at all. The "learning on the job" method is the rule, but there is usually no firm training plan and the training consists in being shown and doing the job. Only in rare cases, for instance in Denmark, is a joint-company training component included in the programme. This usually means that the participants take courses in joint-company training centres before or after doing the job provided by the programme.

Three programmes in Greece, Denmark and the United Kingdom serve as examples of different combinations of the various aspects in which each is accorded suitable importance to each. Taking into account the national peculiarities of the different countries these programmes show how the functions of labour market relief, allocation and training can be combined in an indirect job creation scheme.

One Greek job creation scheme deserves particular mention in this respect, since it is generally supposed that Greece has little experience in labour market and educational policy. This makes the scheme entitled "20 000 jobs for unemployed youth" all the more interesting. Understandably in view of the high rate of unemployment among young people (65 % of registered unemployed persons in 1982 were young people) this is a first systematic attempt in Greece to fight unemployment. The administrative organization supporting the scheme (which will be referred to as the Youth Programme in what follows) is the OAED and financial support is supplied by the European Social Fund. The design of the programme is basically the conventional indirect job creation scheme design. Wage cost subsidies for the private sector are paid when temporary jobs are created for young people. These subsidies are granted for a period of six months and range between twenty and fourty per cent. It is noticeable that enterprises with new technologies receive higher wage cost subsidies than those using traditional methods of industrial production, commercial undertakings or the services. The scheme is evidently intended to support the development of jobs in enterprises with modern technologies. Enterprises conducting foreign trade receive the highest subsidies.

Although the scheme does not explicitly provide for training it deserves mention. The participants are unemployed young people who have already received vocational training

or have work experience. The aim is to relieve the labour market in the short and long term by means of the allocative function, in this case by promoting modern technologies and foreign trade. The "learning-by-doing" element suffices as training since the young people in question already have a vocational qualification or work experience: the maintenance of vocational skills is rightly a priority.

The JTO and JSO schemes developed in Denmark are distinguished by the fact that they lay particular emphasis on the integration of the existing qualifications of the unemployed. The idea is that an unemployed person should not merely be offered a job, "no matter what", but one which corresponds to his previous work experience. At the same time the projects are supposed to have a social utility good, this criterion also being applied to the private enterprises. In Denmark the aim is to develop new products and new production processes. Obviously the qualification structure of the unemployed will only rarely correspond to the qualification requirements arising out of the allocative element. This is exactly what makes these programmes so fascinating; they aim to close the gap between the demand and supply of qualifications by offering further training on both an in-firm and joint-company basis. The participants of the job creation schemes may take advantage of training courses in the regular continuous training system, in particular the EIFL and EIFU courses. These are courses in basic occupation-specific theory for various vocations in different branches. At the same time the participants also have the opportunity do broader-based vocational training and general introductory courses. The structure of the programmes thus allows for a combination of learning on the job and further out-of-firm training, but on a sequential rather than an alternating basis. Despite the practical difficulties involved the courses are

good examples of how it is possible to combine the allocative function with vocational training in the form of adaptation training in indirect job creation schemes.

One example in the United Kingdom is worthy of mention. The In-Plant Training Scheme, a programme with a restricted design, was introduced to give particular support to regions with little industry and above-average unemployment. The scheme is interesting because the idea is to provide jobs with a stable future which require skills that the unemployed in question do not have. Consequently the programme combines an orientation towards output and training. It aims a close linkage between job creation scheme and conversion training, in certain circumstances also retraining. The grants awarded to enterprises under this scheme are therefore also intended to help cover the costs of training. The wage costs during the training period and those for the trainers are subsidized, even when experts have to be called in from outside, also the costs of materials needed for training and, in certain cases, travelling expenses. The training is given on an in-firm basis. The programme does not cater for joint-company elements, apart from the engagement of external trainers. While the scheme has obvious weak points - for instance, the lack of joint-company training - the labour market and vocational policy aspects are clear: the aim is to correct the imbalance between the demand and supply of qualifications in order to provide the vocational qualifications which which will be required in future for new technologies and new production processes in branches of the economy whose development is expected to remain stable in the future.

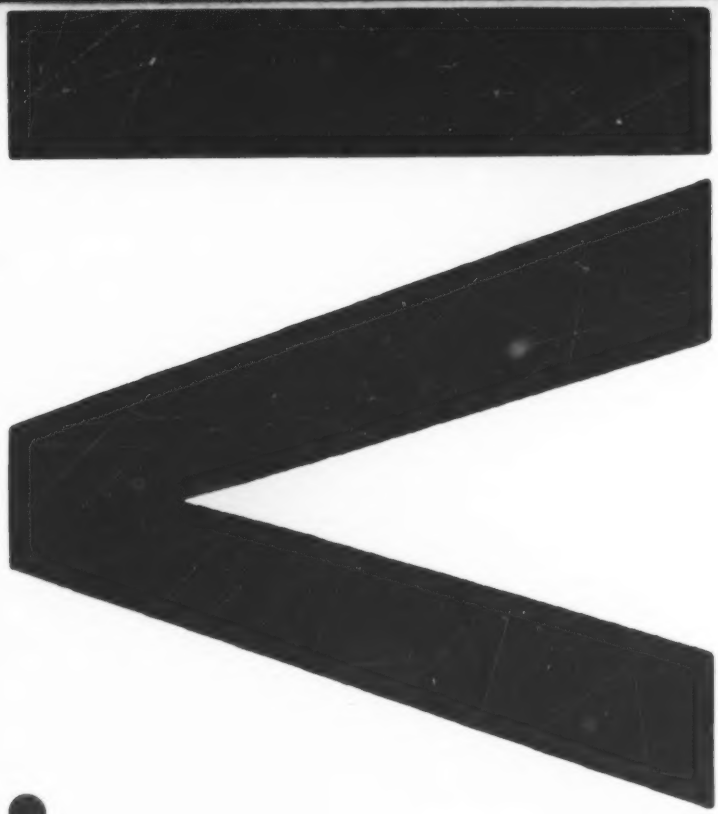
The above examples are exceptions. The designs of most indirect job creation schemes are not very convincing. The low level of efficiency of the schemes also applies to the function of relieving the labour market. The employment

effects of the indirect job creation schemes are considerably reduced by "cashing in" and displacement. The empirical assessments show rises in the employment effects which are roughly between 15 % and 66 % of the planned increase. The relief effect on the labour market is particularly weak when the organisatory basis of the programme is complicated. As a result of bureaucratic restrictions, numerical assignment systems - the allocation of an unemployed worker to an enterprise without any right of refusal - possibly also placement of the enterprise under the obligation to keep the worker under contract when the subsidization period has come to an end - the enterprises tend to react rather hesitantly. It is therefore not surprizing that in some cases the degree of utilization of the schemes, i.e. the extent to which the funds are actually made use of, is low. In one programme in the Netherlands the rate is only 35 %.

However, the integration quotas, i.e. the percentages of participants who remain in stable jobs when the schemes have come to an end, is higher for the indirect job creation schemes than for the direct ones. This can be explained by the fact that the indirect job creation schemes are mainly directed at the private sector, with the result that enterprises use them to train human capital to meet their own specific requirements. The programme participants are often taken over by the enterprises - at the expense of other groups on the labour market - and the prospects of successful placement are higher in the private sector than in the direct job creation schemes in the public sector. However, the employment prospects of participants in the indirect job creation schemes could be substantially raised if not only company-specific qualifications could be obtained by means of on-the-job-learning,

but opportunities to acquire non-company-specific qualifications were increased by incorporating inter-company training and an in-firm course of training.

Most of the indirect job creation schemes are not very efficient. Their effects are hardly encouraging, as regards the short-term relief of the labour market and even less as regards the allocative function (delay of structural transformation) and they are also disappointing as regards training. In view of the general lack of links between indirect job creation schemes and vocational training and the facts that maintenance of existing qualifications, which are relatively low-level due to the target groups in question, is no more than barely detectable, and that the training rarely goes beyond mere familiarization with the work, the indirect job creation schemes can hardly be expected to produce convincing results. However, greater efficiency could be achieved if the designs of the indirect job creation schemes were reconsidered and new forms tried out.



Training-oriented job creation schemes

IV. TRAINING-ORIENTED JOB CREATION PROGRAMMES

1. The empirical facts

Even though some job creation schemes may omit the training element, this does not necessarily mean that they are inefficient. Since we are dealing with a mixture of different types of programme, the evaluation of the ways in which vocational training is promoted the methods of imparting knowledge and skills and the target levels of qualification must also take into account the respective system of vocational training, in particular the initial vocational training.

For this reason in this report we have differentiated between employment-oriented (direct and indirect) and training-oriented job creation schemes. Just as the emphasis of employment-oriented job creation schemes varies the designs of the training-oriented schemes are also geared towards different objectives; Table 9 shows important elements of such programmes in the Member States of the European Community. They have been classified according to the following main criteria: each of the countries concerned has its own specific systems of initial vocational training and forms of transition from the school system to the system of initial vocational training or the employment system. The designs of the training-oriented programmes must take into account correspondingly varying conditions.

a. In some Community countries (for example, Belgium and France) in which the initial vocational training is determined to a considerable extent by the joint-company training, a number of training programmes can be ident-

Table 9
Training-oriented job creation schemes

Country / Training	Belgium	Denmark	Federal Republic of Germany	France	Greece
Vocational experience	Practical training periods for young people (Stages des jeunes)			Pactes pour l'emploi I, II + III; Plan avenir jeunes and dependent measures; Stages pratiques en entreprises; Stages d'insertion; Contrat emploi-adaptation; Stages de préparation à la vie professionelle	
Work experience		Induction courses for young people (EIFU) Induction courses for the unemployed, incl. women (EIFL)		Pactes pour l'emploi I, II + III; Plan avenir jeunes; Stages pratiques en entreprises; Contrat emploi-orientation; Stages de préparation à la vie professionelle	
Institution of alternance training				Pactes pour l'emploi I, II + III; Plan avenir jeunes; Exonérations apprentissage; Contrat emploi-formation; Stage de qualification	Training programme for young people Types 1 + 2
Vocational instruction				Pactes pour l'emploi I, II + III, Plan avenir jeunes; Stages en centres de formation	Training programme for unemployed persons
Re-training Further education/ training	Credited hours (Crédit d'heures)	Vocational induction courses for young people (EIFU) Vocational induction courses for the unemployed, incl. women (EIFL) Training courses of longer duration (LAMU)	Federal govt. labour market policy scheme for regions with particular employment problems, Priority Area (Schwerpunkt) 1		

Country / Training	Ireland	Italy	Luxembourg	Netherlands	United Kingdom
Vocational experience					
Work experience	Community Youth Training Programme; Grant Scheme for Youth Employment; Work Experience Programme				Youth Opportunity Programme; Work Experience Programme; Employers Premises; Community Projects; Training Workshops
Institution of alternance training		Youth employment measures (Leggio 1° giugno 1977 + 285 provvedimenti per l'occupazione giovanile); Training-employment contract (contratto di formazione-lavoro)	Orientation premium (Prime d'orientation) Premium for taking on an apprentice (Aide à l'embauche d'apprentis)		Youth Training Scheme; Vocational Voluntary Projects
Vocational instruction				Centres for the vocational training of adults (1944) (Centra voor Vakopleiding voor Volwassenen	Training Opportunity Programme; Youth Opportunity Programme
Re-training Further education/ training				Grant for vocational training - co-operation between govt. + industry (Scholing in Samenwerking Tussen, Overheid en Bedrijfsleven)	

ified which are geared towards promoting the acquisition of work experience. This is for the most part practical training on the job for young people who have completed joint-company training and have qualifications which cannot be directly applied in a specific firm. The purpose of these practical training periods is to provide opportunities for work experience for young people who have little or no on-the-job experience, without which enterprises would be obliged to make high company-specific investments in human capital.

b. In some countries (Denmark, France, Ireland, the United Kingdom) there are work experience programmes for those young people who finish their education without having obtained a formal vocational qualification and are not able or do not wish to gain them by any other means. The idea of these work experience programmes is to give young unemployed people with a low level of qualification the opportunity to obtain their first employment and thus raise their chances on the labour market, i.e. their employability.

c. For unemployed persons in varying age-groups some Member States have training-oriented programmes aimed at promoting joint-company training centres for vocational and continuing training. Some of these are also geared towards the special requirements of young people. Under these programmes the unemployed attend vocational training centres for a certain period, during which they receive an allowance. In some cases they are threatened with the withdrawal of unemployment benefits if they refuse to take part. There are programmes of this kind in Denmark, the Netherlands, the United Kingdom, the Federal Republic of Germany, France and Greece. Some of them are courses which merely require a lower level of previous vocational training (for instance, in the

United Kingdom) but others are courses in fields in which there are too few qualified workers available (Greece).

d. Depending on the local systems of initial vocational training and the qualification gaps on the labour markets the emphasis on re-training and continuation training programmes varies from Member State to Member State. Examples can be found in the Netherlands, the Federal Republic of Germany and Belgium, but there are others elsewhere. The aim of these programmes is to close qualification gaps by altering the qualification profiles of workers who have already been working for some time.

e. Probably the most interesting programme category of all is that which promotes initial vocational training in alternance form. Different Member States have implemented training-oriented schemes promoting alternance training in which the areas of main emphasis have varied from country to country.

The design and evaluation of the programmes depends on the respective system of initial vocational training. It is therefore necessary to analyze these systems in more detail.

2. Training-oriented programmes and initial vocational training

In the countries of the European Community there are, rather generally speaking, three forms of initial vocational training. The initial training can be mainly on a joint-company basis (Belgium, France, Italian, Luxembourg) and there are mixed forms of joint-company training,

school-based basic training, with a transition to a system of in-firm training (Greece, Luxembourg and the Netherlands). Mixed forms including both in-firm and school-based training but which are not conducted on an alternating basis are to be found in Italy and the United Kingdom. Finally, a dual system of initial vocational training in a special alternance form has been introduced in some countries (Denmark, the Federal Republic of Germany).

Each of these three training systems, which shall be termed the school-based, in-firm and alternance systems in what follows, has three special levels at which conflicts may arise. In in-firm training systems the training is provided according to the qualification requirements of the respective company within the framework laid down by the political decision-makers. When such a qualification is not acceptable for other companies the disadvantages of in-firm training are obvious: firstly the training system will lead to a bias in favour of those qualifications for which the companies anticipate a need in the near future. This by no means has to be the same as the long-term requirement. Secondly the training will be particularly biased towards the specific qualifications required by the firm in question. If both of these cases apply the vocational flexibility of the trainees qualifying in such a course will be restricted.

If a mainly school-based system is confronted with these company-specific training systems the areas of conflict are equally evident.They are as a rule related to a lack of correlation between the form and content of the training courses laid down by the political decision-makers which, again taking into consideration the issue of acceptance and the necessity for company-specific qualifications, complicate the transition from the system of vocational training into the employment system. Typical examples of this are

to be found in Belgium and France. The problems are intensified when on starting work the skilled workers trained in a school-based and joint-company training system have to be paid the same or a similar wage as the skilled workers with in-firm qualifications.

In the dual system both school-based and in-firm training are provided in alternation. There are examples of this in the Federal Republic of Germany and Denmark. The levels of conflict occur as a result of potential vocational mis-allocation. In other words, it takes longer to change the structures of the occupations for which training is provided and the content of the training courses than the requirements for occupations with a stable future. There are several reasons for this: young people at the start of their careers often decide on fashionable occupations, while it is difficult to establish which occupations will remain stable in future, since, owing to the long-term prospects there is no immediate demand. On completion of training they find that they cannot use their qualifications because there are not enough jobs. They are then forced to change to other occupations or even take jobs as semi-skilled or unskilled workers. From the point of view of economic and social policy these processes may be termed mis-allocation: investments in human capital prove unprofitable and qualifications lose their value.

Other problems and conflicts arise when the in-firm or joint-company training systems do not provide enough training. Trainees are then selected according to the qualifications they have obtained in school with the result that, when not enough training is provided young people must move straight into the employment system as unskilled or semi-skilled workers. For example, in Denmark, France, Ireland, Italy, the United Kingdom and the Netherlands the numberof

young people who start their first job straight after leaving school with poor qualifications or are forced into unemployment is higher than average.

Table 10 gives an overview of the conflict areas and the resulting alternative policies for training-oriented job creation schemes in the Member States of the European Community. Indicators are used to identify the areas of conflict. The vocational training indicator is the ratio between full-time school vocational training and training in an apprenticeship among young people having just left school. In Table 10 this indicator is given in Column 2. The kinds of training shown in Column 1 under "Type of training" correspond to the indicators: in countries whose training system is given as mainly school-based the percentage of young people going into full-time in-school vocational training after completing compulsory schooling is higher than average. In countries in which the training systems are shown as being for the most part in-firm the same applies for training by apprenticeship.

In order to permit identification of the areas of conflict for unskilled and semi-skilled workers an indicator for "no vocational training" has been given in Column 3 of Table 10. This indicator is the ratio of employed or unemployed young people to young people training as apprentices after completing compulsory schooling. It can be seen that in the countries in which the training system is mainly in-firm the proportion of young people taking on a job or becoming unemployed after compulsory schooling is particularly high in comparison with those who receive training as apprentices.

Since no differentiated statistics are available the information to be gained from empirical confrontations with the assumed conflict areas is limited. Nevertheless, the

Table 10 Problem areas and alternative policies: Training-oriented job creation programmes

Country	Type of training	Indicators[1]: vocational training	Indicators[2]: vocational training deficits	Co-ordination of training contents	Alternance	Problem areas	Policy level: Vocational/job experience	Alternating programmes	Others	Remarks
Belgium	mainly joint-company	(1977) 36:4	(1977) 4:4	little	no	training/firm	vocational experience	no		
Denmark	initial training joint-company, then dual system	(1976) 13:30	(1976) 31:30	moderate	yes	unskilled/semi-skilled	work experience	no	maintenance of basic qualifications	training for special workers
F. Rep. Germany	mainly dual system	(1976) 19:50	(1976) 9:50	moderate to good	yes	inappropriate allocation (occupations)	no	no	flexibility (re-training/continuous training	
France	mainly joint-company	(1978) 40:14	(1978) 19:14	poor	no	training/firm unskilled/semi-skilled	vocational experience	yes, a high number		
Greece	joint-company training, otherwise: in-company	no data	no data	poor	no	Occupations in short supply	no	no	training programme with instruction part of firm	deficits in qualifications in occupations with a stable future
Ireland	in-company training	(1977) 10:5	(1977) 27:5	moderate	no	unskilled/semi-skilled occupations in short supply	work experience	no		
Italy	mainly joint-company	(1977) 50:4	(1977) 23:4	poor	no	unskilled/semi-skilled	no	yes		
Luxembourg	joint-company and in-company	(1977) 31:23	(1977) 15:23	moderate	no	training/firm	no	yes		
Netherlands	joint-company, then in-company w. joint-company components joint-company elements	(1977) 29:9	(1976) 26:9	moderate to poor	very little	training/firm; unskilled/semi-skilled			vocational centres re-training/continuous training, sometimes initial training	
United Kingdom	joint-in-company centres; in-firm	(1977) 10:14	(1977) 44:14	poor, company-specific	no	unskilled/semi-skilled; company-specific qualifications, difficult to use elsewhere	work experience	yes, sometimes	continuous training with in-firm components, sometimes initial training	

impression is confirmed. In the dual system conflicts arise as a result of vocational mis-allocation, where the vocational training is mainly school-based the transition from the training system to the employment system is more difficult, and where the training is mainly on an in-firm basis there are particular problems for unskilled and semi-skilled workers.

Certain alternative policies for training-oriented job creation schemes can be derived from the conflict areas described and those shown in Table 10.

1. When the training system is mainly school-based and there are areas of conflict associated with the transition from the training system to the employment system, vocational experience programmes should be developed. Vocational experience programmes should offer training which provides the trainee with knowledge of in-firm procedures, company-specific qualifications and initial work experience. These measures should be financed by training-oriented job creation schemes.

2. If when the training is mainly in-firm the conflicts are due to a lack of joint-company components and lacking acceptance of the qualifications of the trainees by other companies, joint company training courses should be developed for training-oriented job creation schemes and opportunites for continuing training provided.

3. If the conflict area is the displacement of young people of the training system into the employment system, forcing them to take unskilled and semi-skilled jobs, because there are too few training units of either the in-firm or school-based type, then training-oriented job

creation schemes should take the form of work experience programmes, orientation programmes and programmes for maintaining basic qualifications.

4. If the conflict areas are associated with vocational mis-allocation with the result that too few workers are trained for jobs with a stable future and too many for dead-end occupations job creation schemes should be developed for re-training.

5. With respect to the acceptance of certificates, the harmonization of the contents of training courses and the structures of occupations alternating systems of vocational training have the fewest contradictions. Training-oriented job creation schemes can serve to introduce alternating initial vocational training. This applies to those countries in which alternance is not very wide-spread and which do not wish or are not able to make the big step of re-structuring their whole system of initial vocational training.

The assiduity with which the Member States pursue the described alternative policies and the rationales behind them varies. In Table 10 the policies pursued (cf. also Table 9) are summarized according to the levels of occupational experience, the introduction of alternance programmes and other programmes such as promotion of flexibility and the setting up of vocational centres and continuing training centres. In the following sections certain programmes will be briefly described and evaluated.

3. Alternance Training

Only in a few countries of the European Community is the initial vocational training organized in an alternance system. In the Federal Republic of Germany, Denmark and the Netherlands there are (dual) alternance training systems, these being systems of initial vocational training in which in-firm and school-based training alternate.

Alternance training has advantages over other systems. These are the possibility of achieving better harmonization of macro- and micro-economic interests, better methods of imparting knowledge and skills and a high level of acceptance of qualifications on the part of enterprises.

In some Member States in which either the school-based or in-firm training system dominates there are moves towards alternance training. These could be in a direction which would necessitate a fundamental overhaul of the system of initial vocational training. It is hardly surprizing that this is only being seriously attempted in a few countries. The economic, social and cultural roots of the historically developed training systems are too strong. In traditional training systems job creation schemea can help to clear the way for the trying out of new and better forms of training. In some Member States this is what is happening. The French have been trying particularly hard to set up alternance training systems through the medium of training-oriented job creation schemes, and to a lesser extent also the Greeks, Italians, Luxemburgers and, since recently, the United Kingdom. However, the training-oriented job creation schemes oriented towards increasing the amount of alternance training differ substantially from one another.

Greece is using conventional methods. The training programme for young people provides short training courses for unemployed young people without any vocational training. The courses contain both an in-firm and a school-based component. The training programmes for young people between the ages of 15 and 20 years who have no specific vocational skills is designed more like a work experience programme. We are still referring to it here as a first step towards an alternance training system since there are links between the theoretical joint-company training courses and the practical, in-firm training.

A few training-oriented job creation schemes in Italy are less conventional and more closely geared towards linking joint-company and in-firm forms of training. The Italian Law No. 285 dated 1977/78 provided for 12-month training contracts offering young people a half-day job with the opportunity to attend joint-company vocational training courses run and co-ordinated by the regional administration. The training-employment contracts (contratto di formazione lavoro), which are broader-based than the training contracts, place even greater emphasis on the training elements. After the expiry of the fixed-term employment-training contract the young people are supposed to have attained the status of skilled workers, irrespective of their level of training. Owing to the differences between the young people's levels of training, a large proportion of them having completed secondary education and obtained a diploma of higher education, both the work requirements and the courses offered by the schools of vocational training are flexible.

The programme bridges the gaps between joint-company training and the requirements of the private enterprises. It is still not fully satisfactory. The enterprises have not offered enough training-employment contracts because when

the State subsidies are too low the regular apprenticeship contracts are less costly than the training-employment contracts. The apprenticship contracts do not include any very binding obligation to provide adequate vocational training, which means that apprentices can be used as "cheap labour". Moreover, little training is offered for the occupations with a stable future. Finally, the training contracts issued under Law No. 285-77 place too little emphasis on the training element. As a rule it is question of short training phases at the start of the period of validity of the contract which are interrupted when the trainee begins actually doing the work.

Luxembourg is trying to introduce alternance training mainly by means of two measures. The first is the system of orientation premiums (primes d'oriertation) and the second the granting of a premium for taking on an apprentice (aide à l'embauche d'apprentis). The programmes are oriented towards occupations of which there is a shortage and cater for the unemployed or young people under the threat of unemployment. The orientation premium is paid in addition to the re-imbursements for the regular apprenticeship contract. The training/employment premium is only paid when the job is linked to a course of training organized by the Ministry of Labour.

The most highly developed programmes for promoting a system of alternance training are to be found in France and the United Kingdom. The levels at which conflict arise are different in the two countries: in France there are problems associated with the transition from the joint-company, school-based vocational training system to the employment system and in the United Kingdom with the transition from the system of general, school-based training to the strongly company-specific vocational training system. The solutions attempted by the two countries are as similar as

the problem areas are different. In both cases it is a question of designing programmes to link in-firm and joint-company training elements.

In France the main provisions are contained in the national employment pacts and the "Plan Avenir Jeunes". They mainly apply to training-employment contracts (contrats emploi-formation) and practical training periods (stages de qualification).

The smaller programme offers practical training periods of about 6 months with roughly 800 training hours. Some of the training is provided in joint-company training centres and some on an in-firm basis. Although the "stages de qualification" do serve the purpose of providing training places and thus have similarities with practical vocational preparation courses they can be considered as an attempt to promote alternance training.

The training-employment contracts are more important. These contracts are aimed at unemployed persons aged between 17 and 26 years and also promote women. If the training period is relatively long (over 500 hours) a one- or two-year employment contract is concluded with the companies. The costs of training are then reimbursed to the companies. Although the training generally takes place on an in-firm rather than on a joint-company basis, since the French system of initial vocational training is mainly school-based the programme can also be seen as promotion of alternance training when the training parts are conducted in the enterprises. This promotes the co-ordination between the school-based and in-firm training elements, which is often regarded as inefficient, within the French initial vocational training system as a whole. It is nevertheless correct that the efficiency of the training-employment contracts is reduced by the lack of joint-company compon-

ents and adequate monitoring of the training provided. The intended promotion of women is also not sufficiently realized.

While the object of the training-employment contracts and practical training periods in France is to improve in-firm training and increase the amount of alternance training, the aim of the labour market and vocational training policies in the United Kingdom is to increase the proportion of training provided on a joint-company basis. This approach would appear to be suitable in that a substantial portion of the British initial vocational training takes the form of in-firm training. Programmes supporting the increase of the joint-company element therefore also favour the introduction of alternance systems. The makers of British labour market policy have known this for some time and the criticism of the Youth Opportunity Programme (too few links between in-firm and joint-company training and too little training overall has been taken into account in training-oriented programmes promoted under the New Training Initiative, of which the most important is the Youth Training Scheme (YTS). This programme was introduced by the Manpower Services Commission and is directed at 16-17-year-old school-leavers and young unemployed persons under 18 years. A large number of young people take part. During the experimental phase in 1982 there were about 100 000 participants and in the year from September 1983 to September 1984 roughly 300 000. The YTS participants receive a training grant and the programme consists of the following stages: once it has been established what skills they already have the participants are offered courses in basic skills and an introduction to the handling of tools, office machinery, etc. The parts of the training which are rele-

vant to the occupation itself are conducted in a Work Experience Programme by means of on- and off-the-job training lasting at least 3 months. During the programme counselling and supportive measures are provided and a certificate is awarded at the end. The idea is that with this design the YTS, unlike the Youth Opportunity Programme, will not merely provide initial vocational experience but also features of formal training. The purpose of the YTS is to make the transition from on-the-job training pure and simple to the use of off-the-job and joint-company training and the creation of inter-company qualifications.

The YTS has been a great success. However, it places young job applicants who have not been on the programme at a disadvantage, but this is not a basic criticism of the programme design, merely of its scale. The additional complaint that the YTS is in fact simply prolonging compulsory schooling makes the criticism contradictory in any case. If something must be done the scale of the YTS could be further increased and the design further developed in order to promote the introduction of alternance training.

Despite the differences between the designs of the programmes in Italy and France (training-employment contracts) and the United Kingdom (Youth Training Scheme), they are pointing in the right direction. They gain their significance when viewed in conjunction with the respective systems of initial vocational training. France would benefit from increasing the in-firm components of initial vocational training, in the United Kingdom more emphasis should be laid on the joint-company elements. The above training-oriented programmes are an attempt to promote alternance training by means of measures which give priority to that component of vocational training which is lacking in the respective country without fundamentally altering the existing systems of initial vocational training. Even

giving due consideration to the criticism of details of the philosophies behind the educational and labour market policies on which the programmes are based are highly convincing.

4. Re-training, continuing training and further education and training

In addition to the programmes described above in some countries of the European Community opportunities are provided for unemployed persons of all ages or specific age groups to obtain vocational re-training, continuing or further training.

The necessity of including re-training, continuing training and further training in training-oriented programmes is evident. Training-oriented programmes should try to qualify workers occupations with a stable future which meet the requirements of the new technologies. The unemployed frequently have qualifications with a distinctly different structure. The initial vocational training is often geared towards traditional job profiles and requirements. It is therefore necessary to improve the co-ordination between the programmes which maintain vocational skills and cautiously add to the existing qualifications of the target groups, and those which build on to these and provide re-training for required new qualifications.

Not all programmes which are clearly geared towards adaptation training and re-training are worthy of mention. Large-scale programmes in the United Kingdom, Greece's attempts to set up a training programme for the unemployed, and certain sections of programmes in France which are part of the national employment pacts and the plan for the future of youth, and of programmes in the Netherlands and the Federal Republic of Germany are of particular interest.

In the United Kingdom the Training Opportunities Scheme (a programme for the re-training and initial vocational training of unemployed persons) and the above-mentioned Youth Opportunity Programme (YOP) played a central role in the seventies. The design of the Training Opportunities Scheme makes the training intention particularly clear: the applicant is seen at an interview at which his suitability for the courses is determined. A selection committee decides whether he/she is to be accepted or turned down and a few tests have to be taken during the courses. The courses themselves are conducted in training centres, Colleges of Further Education, some in private enterprises and also in smaller training institutions such as the Residential Training Centres.

Evaluated on the basis of the employment prospects of the successful YOP trainees the programme can be considered successful. Roughly 80 % of the participants are placed in regular jobs after completing the courses. The YOP has been continually improved. The structure of the courses offered under the YOP shows that in the seventies there was a clear bias in favour of training for traditional occupations. Even at the beginning of the eighties traditional office occupations and jobs such as mechanic, tool-maker and fitter or in the construction industry were still clearly in the lead. Steps have therefore quite rightly been taken to introduce qualitative changes through the YOP. The courses for office occupations and mechanics have been cut down and those for technicians and computer subjects continually added to. The Manpower Services Commission is now trying to put the main emphasis on skills required for modern technologies in a programme entitled the New Training Initiative. New forms of institution have also been developed in the United Kingdom. Under the increased influence of the Industrial Training Boards more priority is to be given to the training of workers for

modern production technologies. This is also the object of the Open Tech Programme, which was introduced in the autumn of 1983, and which is also to employ modern learning techniques.

The Greek attempts at setting up programmes for continuing and further training deserve particular mention. The programmes are aimed at those workers who have a certificate from a technical or vocational training lyceum, a pre-university certificate from one of the centres for higher technical and vocational training (KATEE) or a university qualification. The participants receive a thorough theoretical training from ELKEPA, followed by a practical training period of about 3 months in private enterprises.

The training includes modern requirements such as marketing and sales, cost accounting, management, foreign trade and export promotion. The technical field includes production control, micro-electronics and microcomputers, and power engineering. This selection of courses is due to the deficits of skills in Greece arising from the educational and vocational training systems. On the level of the training provided by the technical and vocational lyceums there are deficits in fields such as training for carpenters, painters and aircraft mechanics. There are no courses at all for programmers at the technical and vocational lyceums. At the KATEE level there are no courses in microbiology, fashion design, packaging technologies, market research, electro-chemistry or higher management.

The purpose of the ELKEPA training is try to remove these training deficits. Here the European Social Fund plays an important role, as also in other Member States. Since at the beginning of the eighties the European Social Fund only promoted integrated training and employment programmes on a small scale and innovative programmes of action in the

field of vocational training and employment were under-represented, Greek labour market policy was forced to fall back on the forms of subsidization by the European Social Fund which had developed during the seventies. Only recently has it been possible to use the employment subsidies issued by the European Social Fund much more flexibly as an instrument. Greece will therefore also in future be able to concentrate more on the course started on with the setting up of the productivity centre (ELKEPA).

Attention should also be drawn to certain measures of French labour market policy which are also to be found in the national employment pacts. The scheme "Stages au centre d'information" promotes courses of between 6 and 8 months' duration at joint-company centres for young people between 16 and 25 years of age. These courses represent an attempt by the French labour market policies to increase the training opportunities for young people eager to train and also to add new programmes for further education and training and re-training.

In France an instrument organized and monitored by the Agence nationale pour l'emploi (ANPE), namely the "stage de mise en niveau", is also gaining importance. Its purpose is to relieve at local level training problems of associated with adaptation necessitated by gaps arising between the supply of and demand for labour. The most remarkable aspect of this programme is that the ANPE itself actively intervenes in labour market policy. However, the courses offered are only short and are only intended to fill in small gaps between the qualifications in demand and those available.

In the Netherlands the "Centres for the vocational training of adults" programme, which was introduced as far back as 1944, is an important instrument in the training of unemployed persons or workers in danger of becoming unemployed.

The object is to integrate or re-integrate these groups in the employment system and provide unskilled workers with vocational training. The centres are equipped for vocational training, vocational re-habilitation, re-training and further vocational training in the construction industry, the metal industry, road vehicle construction and electrical engineering. Applicants for places are required to take aptitude tests and their preferences for certain occupations are considered, taking into account their existing qualifications. The training programme is then put together on the basis of an analysis of the training content of the occupation. The training is structured according to a uniform training plan. After completing a course in basic skills and theory the trainees continue training on an individual basis, in simulated work processes.

The placement rate of just under 90 % of the participants shows how efficient the programmes are. Two things are of decisive importance as regards efficiency: firstly, that the training methods are geared towards the vocational preferences and existing qualifications of the applicants and secondly, that training is given for certain occupations in cases of specific need. Evidently it has been possible to close the gaps mentioned above, i.e. to achieve a balance between the existing qualifications of the unemployed or those in danger of becoming unemployed and society's qualification requirements.

The Dutch SOB programmes also attempt to combine the training of unemployed workers with employment contracts. However, these programmes do not exclude unemployed persons with whom the enterprises do not conlcude an employment contract. The subsidies granted for the training of unemployed persons are higher than those for workers already employed by the companies. The SOB programmes are not

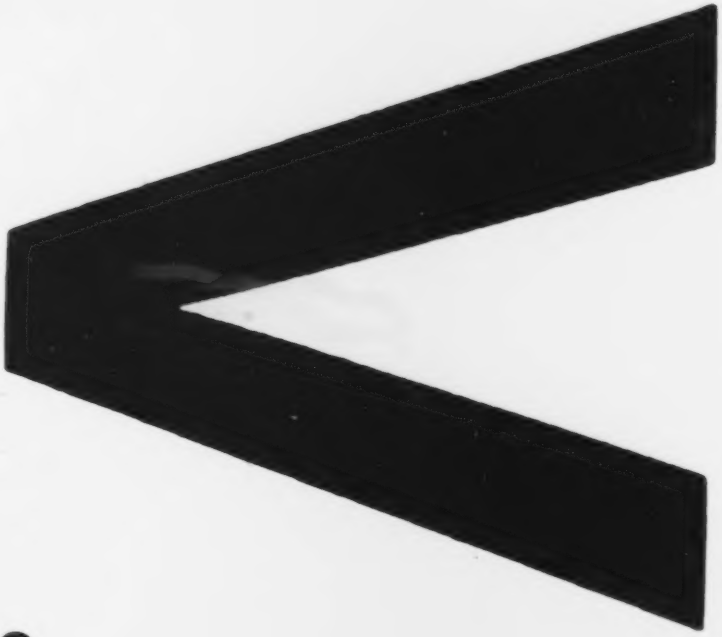
geared towards achieving short-term objectives, rather the intention is to improve future employment prospects. The demands placed on the firms providing the training are high: an application from an enterprise for subsidization of training costs under the SOB regulations must include a detailed description of the training programme in question and the manner of organization and training methods must be declared. The courses can also take place on an external basis in the centres for the vocational training of adults.

On evaluation it becomes clear that the SOB programme is used by the enterprises mainly as aid for the training of their own employees. The proportion of unemployed workers benefiting from SOB training measures is low, however, the success rate is high: 96 % of participants having successfully completed training retain their jobs.

The programmes for continuing training and further education and training in the Federal Republic of Germany will not be dealt with individually in this report since they are not job creation programmes in the strict sense. However, Priority Area 1 (Schwerpunkt 1) of the labour market policy programme of the Federal Government deserves mention. The objectives of Priority Area 1 of the special programme are similar to those of the Dutch model described above. The aim is to provide "vocational training for employees in enterprises with conversion and re-training problems". Vocational training is subsidized by means of wage cost grants of between 80 and 100 % and is used to support structrual conversion processes and prevent redundacies due to conversion. The re-training provided is for occupations with recognized qualifications, continuing training for recognized continuing training qualifications and other kinds of training are offered in accordance with

a training plan drawn up by the individual enterprises. The programmes are as a rule carried out by external continuing training organizations.

While Priority Area 1 is similar to the Dutch schemes, comparison of the evaluations reveals marked differences. Priority Area 1 benefits above all older persons and workers with a low level of qualification. This is no disadvantage in the case of the Federal Perublic of Germany since enterprises have provided much in the way of continuing training for workers with a low level of qualifications and this is a way of giving this group an opportunity to obtain training. However, certain training objectives are not achieved: since there is little co-ordination between firms and the external training institutions these programmes mainly result in the provision of training oriented towards company-specific requirements and a lack of moves to create qualifications applicable to more than one company. No certificates are awarded for successful completion of training. Therefore unlike the Dutch scheme Priority Area 1 mainly has the effect of promoting in-firm continuing training on an in-firm basis for workers with poor qualifications.



Autonomy-oriented job creation schemes

V. AUTONOMY-ORIENTED JOB CREATION SCHEMES

Certain job creation schemes do not fit into the conventional pattern. These will be referred to as autonomy-oriented job creation schemes. Examples are to be found in the United Kingdom, Italy, France and Ireland. Through these programmes, which make expression provision for the inclusion of training elements in the form of upgrading training, re-training and further training, specific labour costs are subsidized or imputed labour costs which will be incurred in the future are reimbursed now, in anticipation, as it were.

There are three main aspects involved:

a) The promotion of the resource "entrepreneur", which is in short supply, by encouraging the unemployed to set up their own businesses. In these programmes the future imputed labour costs are financed in advanced for the (still) unemployed founder of the business.

b) The encouragement to unemployed persons to start a business can also consist in providing them with the special skills required.

c) If labour market policy lays particular emphasis on the introduction of new technologies, specific training costs for new occupations can be borne by the State.

Some important autonomy-oriented job creation schemes are listed in Table 11. Certain of the more interesting ones are described below.

Table 11

Autonomy-oriented job-creation schemes

Countries	Programme	Time	Remarks
Belgium			
Denmark			
Federal Republic of Germany			
France	The unemployed as firm creators (chômeur-créateur)	from 1/79	Take-over and establishment of businesses
Greece			
Ireland	Programmes to encourage the creation of enterprises		
	- start your own business	from 1/78	
	- youth self-employment programme	from 9/83	
	- enterprise allowances	from 12/83	
	business-related local government programmes for young people	from 6/83	
	- planning grants - enterprise workers' grant - start-up assistance		
Italy	Employment measures for young people (Leggio 1° giugno 1977 u. 285 prorredimenti per l'occupazione giovanile)	6/77-6/81	cooperatives
	creation and expansion of cooperatives		
Luxembourg			
Netherlands			
United Kingdom	Enterprise allowance scheme	from 1/82	

Some models which have been in practice in Italy for some years give the impression of being rather orthodox. Under the provisions of the above-mentioned Law No. 285 (employment measures for young people) programmes have been developed with the aim of encouraging young people to found co-operatives or join existing ones in the fields of agriculture and the social services. In the case of the founding of new co-operatives or the acceptance of new members the State finances the labour costs for new members aged between 18 and 29 years for a period of two years (initially 50 000 Lire per month, later 100 000 Lire per month). At the same time 50 % of the effective expenditure on building, machinery and equipment and land improvement measures was reimbursed to newly-founded co-operatives in the form of investment grants. The programmes included vocational training, i.e. the young people were required to attend suitable courses in vocational training.

These programmes did not remain without effect. The jobs created accounted for 20 to 25 % of the total number of employment contracts subsidized by Law No. 285, a relatively high proportion.

Systems of financial incentives for starting a business have been developed in the United Kingdom (the Enterprise Allowance Scheme) and, more recently, in France (Programme Chomeur Créateur), however, they are more strongly geared towards the private sector and not restricted to young people. The details of the French programme merit a closer look. It was elaborated at the beginning of 1979 and provides for the capitalization of unemployment benefits. This capital is to be used by the unemployed to set up their own businesses. The capitalized total of the unemployment benefit was originally between FF 20 000 and a maximum of FF 40 000. In the new 1983 version of the programme a lump sum of FF 30 000 was fixed

The programme has no small effect on the labour market. In 1979 only 9 200 persons took advantage of it, while in 1982 and 1983 40 000 unemployed have already benefited.

It is hardly surprizing that the level of qualification of the "créateurs" is above-average. 20 % of the total number of "créateurs" had no vocational qualification, the corresponding percentage for the total labour force being roughly 47 %. Just over half of the business founders are skilled workers, who account for 32 % of the total labour force. The average duration of unemployment of the "créateurs" is much lower than the overall average. Only 14 % of the business founders had been unemployed for more than one year and the corresponding figure for the total labour force is over 30 %. The "chômeurs" are evidently really "créateurs".

The success of the programme is at present difficult to estimate. It can be assessed on the basis of the creation of permanently stable jobs. Certain trends are detectable: firstly, unemployed persons appear to be more successful business founders than "normal" ones. This is at least the obvious conclusion to be drawn from the rate of bankruptcies, which is lower than average among the unemployed entrepreneurs. This bankruptcy rate is related neither to the previous employment nor the vocational qualifications of the "créateurs". The stability of the jobs created is evidently relatively high.

From the point of view of vocational training those programmes which place less emphasis on the financial support for setting up a business than on the promotion of the skills required by the future businessman are the more interesting. Examples of this are to be found in Ireland. A programme which is mainly run by the Irish Productivity Centre, in co-operation with AnCO, has been developed under

the Irish labour market and vocational policies and offers courses for workers with the aim of providing the participants with an idea of where there are gaps in the market for new products and services. The contents of these courses include trade relations, market research, information about State aid, what has to be settled with the bank when starting and running a business and information about organizations which support the development of small enterprises.

Although the programme operates on a relatively small scale it can, as is now emerging, be considered successful. About half of the participants have founded their own business. An average of four full-time jobs is created per enterprise. On the basis of the estimated number of enterprises founded it can be assumed that a total of about 700 jobs has been created since the "Start your own business" programme was launched. The majority of the jobs are in the manufacturing sector.

Recently in Ireland new programmes for promoting the founding of new businesses have been started. The aim of the Community and Youth Enterprise Programme, which is financed and supported by the Youth Employment Agency and was developed in close co-operation with AnCO is to encourage in particular young people to set up a business (Youth Self-Employment Programme) and support this encouragement by providing grants for newly founded businesses (Enterprise Allowances).

The "Community and Youth Enterprise Programme" was set up to finance new ventures for the improvement of the infrastructure through the co-operation of young workers with the local communities, which give planning grants in cases in which the financial and/or steering capacities of community bureaucracies are over-burdened and require addi-

tional support during the planning phase of a job creation project. Enterprise Workers Grants are given when individual job creation proposals require further investigations and preparations before getting to the start-up stage. The community and the Youth Employment Agency can finance the employment of an Enterprise worker for up to a maximum of twelve months. Finally, "Start-up assistance" is the third form aid available to individual projects in various forms. Both incomes obtained in dependent employment and management costs are subsidized. Within these programmes the desirability of developing co-operatives plays in important role. The Youth Employment Agency particularly emphasized the setting up of two co-operatives in its last annual report.

A third form of autonomy-oriented job creation scheme is concerned with the introduction of new technologies and the resulting skill requirements. However, the concept "autonomy-oriented job creation schemes" does not mean much in connection with such approaches since these are not schemes for starting businesses but programmes for supporting modernization strategies in the private sector by promoting vocational training. The philosophies behind the educational policies on which the programmes are based are easy to understand: modernization strategies such as the development of new products and production processes and faster integration of the modern technologies into the production process require new "autonomous" vocational skills which cannot yet be clearly defined and can only be determined within certain limits. The Irish and French have developed labour market and vocational training policies in this field which can be classified as job creation schemes in the broader sense.

The French have recently begun to orient their labour market and vocational training policies towards providing the qualifications necessary for the modernization of the French economy. Within the framework of the preparation of the Ninth Economic Plan the so-called "Groupes du stratégie industrielle" have been established, special programmes being developed for the "filières prioritaires" (e.g. electrical engineering, biotechnology and the modernization of homes). The measures of educational and labour market policy cover not only the field of furtherg vocational training but also the system of initial vocational training. Thus 3 000 new places have been created for trainees in informatics. 11 000 engineers have been offered places for further training in this field. In addition to this programme the "Plan productif" provides for vocational re-training courses in the application of new technologies in widely differing sectors of the economy. Two kinds of re-training should be given particular mention: the "Contract qualificateur ultilisateur" and the "Contract adaption". The aim of these two programmes is to prepare 45 000 workers for the requirements of the new technologies within the next two years. A similar programme, but on a smaller scale than that for informatics, is planned for the field of biotechnology. FF 450 million of the 1984 budget were set aside for these educational measures and FF 2.5 thousand million are to have been spent by 1988. It should be noted that the costs of these programmes account for only a fraction of the total funds which should be dedicated to vocational training in France. Some of the policies planned and implemented have already been described and evaluated above.

In Ireland two programmes intended to provide workers with the necessary qualifications for industrial development have been elaborated. The Training Grant Scheme for Existing Industry promotes the elaboration of systematic train-

In Ireland two programmes intended to provide workers with the necessary qualifications for industrial development have been elaborated. The Training Grant Scheme for Existing Industry promotes the elaboration of systematic training plans for existing enterprises and training for new production processes. The New Industry Training Grants have been made available for newly established industrial enterprises to defray the costs of induction of workers.

The Product Development Programme has similar objectives. It was created with the intention of giving small and medium enterprises the opportunity to branch out into new fields of products and services. Aid is given for the recruitment of young university graduates for the firms' product development departments. The first phase of the training includes subjects such as market analysis, product design and the financing of projects. It is conducted over a period of seven weeks and organized on a joint-company basis. After fourteen weeks the participant starts work in a company on specific projects involved in the preparation and introduction of new products or services. Each participant on the job is looked after by a qualified worker.

More recently programmes have been introduced in Ireland by the Youth Employment Agency to give aid to unemployed young people with a high level of qualifications. The Youth Employment Agency also finances the further training and placement of young people with academic or engineering qualifications in small and medium enterprises. The costs of the programme are comparatively high, however, the placement rate is also high (90 %).

These Irish and French labour market and educational policy approaches are quite suitable as policy measures for the promotion of the provision of the necessary qualifications required for modernization strategies, however, their

training over such a long period. This can be illustrated on the basis of the Irish labour market and vocational training policies. According to a survey conducted by the Manpower Consultative Committee, to promote the skills required for growth and modernization strategies in Ireland it is necessary to give particular support to certain "key occupations". The occupations given for Ireland were electronics engineer, electrical engineer, systems theoreticians, tool-makers and designers and various other engineering occupations. If not enough places are available for these occupations in the system of initial vocational training job creation schemes can only be regarded as second best.

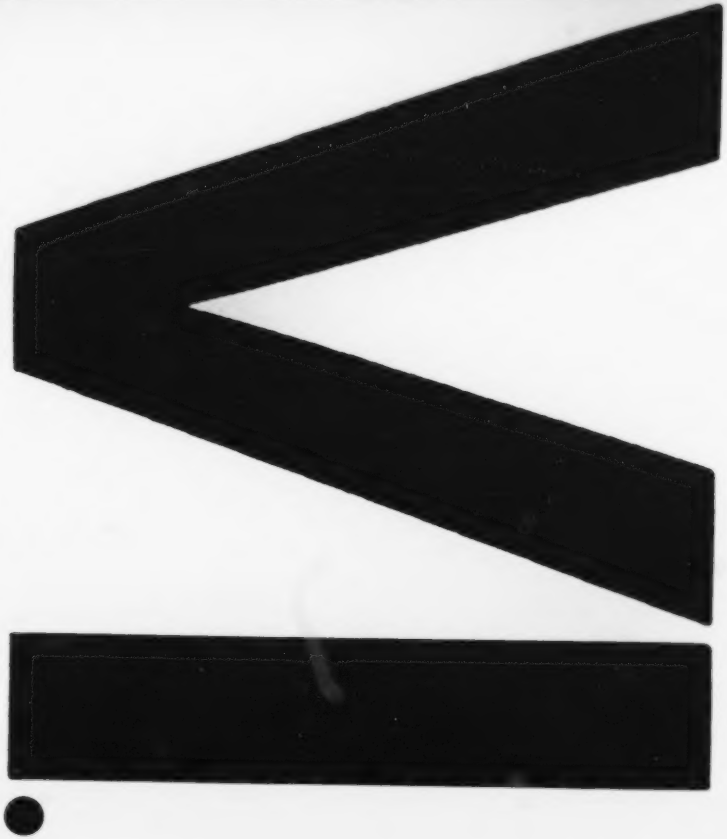
This can also be seen in France: the reform of the system of initial vocational training is overdue in France because there have been justifiable complaints about the lack of practical training. Although, as shown above, different strategies of labour market and educational policy have been employed to interlock initial vocational training and work experience in a kind of alternance structure (elements of the programmes Pactes pour l'emploi, Plan avenir jeunes, Contrat emploi-orientation, Contrat emploi-adaption and Contrat emploi-formation) the programmes coming under the Groupes de stratégie industrielle and the Plan productif cannot suffice to prevent future qualification shortfalls if the modernization strategies are successful.

Finally, specific forms of organization are needed to co-ordinate modernization strategies and the promotion of the skills required. The forms of organization must permit a close linkage between policy on industry and labour market and educational policy. How difficult it is to harmonize industrial development and the promotion of vocational skills on an organizatory level can be seen from the Irish example. The Industrial Development Agency (IDA)

market and educational policy. How difficult it is to harmonize industrial development and the promotion of vocational skills on an organizatory level can be seen from the Irish example. The Industrial Development Agency (IDA) in Ireland promotes industrial development, and co-ordination with those responsible for labour market and educational policy, such as AnCO and the Youth Employment Agency is, as revealed by cautious hints, not satisfactory. There is also an urgent necessity for similar organizatory problems to be solved in other Member States, e.g. Italy.

Autonomy-oriented job creation schemes which support the setting-up of businesses by unemployed persons should also not be over-estimated. They represent an important complement to the employment- and training-oriented programmes, and, in so far as evaluations have been made, are also successful. Their efficiency increases with their degree of flexibility. The fewer the bureaucratic restrictions, the more open the programme designs for markets with goods and services with a secure future, the more strongly the training element is geared towards the future entrepreneur/owner, the more successful the programme. However, it should be borne in mind that the success of a venture is only establishable in the medium term. The small enterprises and co-operatives are particularly liable not to survive the first two years. Any contribution which the schemes for starting businesses can make towards increasing employment is in any case probably only limited. Only a limited number of unemployed workers will be able to take advantage of the programmes since the majority of unemployed will not have the qualifications required of a young, adventurous future entrepreneur. However, the experiences of other countries could be encouraging for some Member States of the European Community which, like the Federal Republic of Germany, at the beginning of the

eighties had hardly developed the form of autonomy-oriented job creation scheme with particular emphasis on the version providing aid for setting up businesses.



Conclusions: weak points and how they can be overcome

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VI. CONCLUSIONS: WEAK POINTS AND HOW THEY CAN BE OVERCOME

1. Weak points: Little encouragement

The extent to which the various forms of job creation programme are employed in the different Member States of the European Community varies. Some countries tend to have more employment-oriented programmes, while others show a trend towards schemes geared to training and promoting autonomy. While it is not always easy to discern the main emphasis of a policy, it is, however, possible on the basis of the empirical data compiled in this study.

Table 12 shows the volumes of funds and the numbers of participants in employment- and training-oriented job creation schemes in the Member States. Since, owing to the differences between the gross national products, the absolute figures for the working populations and unemployment levels in the different countries have no effective informative value, they are shown in relative terms. The volumes of funds are given as permillages of the gross national products and the numbers of participants in percentages of the working populations. The table shows distinct differences between the kinds of policy adopted by the different Member States.

Table 12: Volumes of funds and numbers of participants

Country	Direct job creation programmes: Volume of funds in % of GNP	Direct job creation programmes: No. of participants in % of working pop.	Direct job creation programmes: No. of programmes incl. in study	Indirect job creation programmes: Volume of funds in % of GNP	Indirect job creation programmes: No. of participants in % of working pop.	Indirect job creation programmes: No. of programmes incl. in study	Training-oriented job creation programmes: Volume of funds in % of GNP	Training-oriented job creation programmes: No. of participants in % of working pop.	Training-oriented job creation programmes: No. of programmes incl. in study	Exchequer expenditure on unemployment benefit in % of the GNP: 1980	Exchequer expenditure on unemployment benefit in % of the GNP: 1982
Belgium	5,96	1,43	2	0,25	0,08	1	0,06	0,72	2	2,47	3,16
Denmark	0,90	0,85	2	0,90	0,85	2	--	--	3	3,03	4,00
Federal Republic of Germany	0,82	0,17	3	0,11	0,08	3	--	--	1	0,85	1,70
France	0,08	0,05	2	0,24	0,60	1	1,00	1,36	5	0,89	1,33
Greece	--	--	1	--	--	1	--	--	2	--	--
Ireland	1,00	0,05	2	0,58	0,53	2	1,14	0,81	4	2,25	3,47
Italy	1,64	0,22	3	--	0,01	1	--	0,02	2	0,49	0,79
Luxembourg	--	0,25	2	0,04	0,20	2	0,16	0,23	2	0,14	0,26
Netherlands	0,80	0,19	2	0,18	0,11	3	--	--	2	1,79	3,52
United Kingdom	0,60	0,19	3	1,00	0,82	2	2,88	5,08	2	1,74	2,57

All figures are based on an average for one year during the validity of the programme
GNP: gross national product
--: no data available
Memorandum: exchequer expenditure on unemployment benefit

Sources: CEDEFOP national reports, economics service (Wirtschaftsdienst) 18/84; Europäische Wirtschaft 18/83; Eurostat 84; authors' own calculations

a) In Belgium, Denmark, the Federal Republic of Germany and the Netherlands the employment-oriented programmes are the most common. This is also true to a certain extent for Ireland and the United Kingdom. These countries place greater value on the temporary effect of relieving the labour market than on training elements.

b) Training-oriented programmes play an important role in France, Greece, Italy and Luxembourg. Recently Ireland and the United Kingdom have shown more interest in this kind of scheme.

c) Autonomy-oriented schemes are to be found in only a few countries, for instance, France, Ireland, Italy and the United Kingdom.

It is important not to be misled by the strong preferences of specific countries for particular kinds of job creation programmes into believing that the respective type of policy adopted is unsuitable. We have pointed out at various points in this report that the systems of initial vocational training and the current labour market and vocational training policies should be accorded particular importance in the evaluation.

The trends towards the various kinds of job creation scheme employed in each Community country are shown again in a different way below.

Overview 2
Main elements of the different types of job creation scheme in the Member States of the European Community

	Job creation schemes			
	direct	indirect	autonomy-oriented	training-oriented
Belgium	+++	++		+
Denmark	++	++		+
Federal Republic of Germany	+++	++		+
France	+	++	+	+++
Greece	+	++		+++
Ireland	++	++	+	++
Italy	++	+	+	+++
Luxembourg	+	+		+
United Kingdom	++	++	+	+++

The crosses show which form of job creation programme is most common: the more crosses, the greater the trend towards the type of scheme in question.

The above overview and Table 12 do not give any information on the changes occurring over the course of time. Comparison of the dates of the specific programmes reveals that there has been a distinct change in the orientation of the schemes. Whilst in the seventies policies in all Community countries were firmly based on the conviction

that the problem of cyclical unemployment could be solved by means of job creation programmes, towards the end of the seventies and at the beginning of the eighties an increase in structural labour market problems became evident. The labour market policies did show a corresponding change in course, even if it came rather late: greater attention was paid to the needs of target groups such as the long-term unemployed and young people in job creation schemes.

Finally, at the beginning of the eighties, makers of labour market and vocational training policies in the Member States also realized that structural problems were likely to result from the introduction of the new technologies. The introduction of new products and new production processes leads to the placing of new demands on training , including the development of completely new jobs, whose descriptions cannot yet be precisely defined. In some Community countries these developments have been adequately accounted for within the framework of the job creation schemes. Given the "easy-going" nature of the systems of initial vocational training in France, Italy and the United Kingdom their tendency towards training-oriented job creation programmes at the beginning of the eighties was quite suitable. Other countries were slower to react. These differences in reaction patterns would be understandable if well-functioning vocational training systems (initial vocational training and further training) were successful in preventing a permanent lack of the right qualifications and the labour market

conditions were favourable for all groups represented. By the beginning of the eighties neither of these conditions was fulfilled.

In this report the job creation programmes have been evaluated on the basis of a "magic triangle" whose corners represent the three aims which policy on the schemes can have: the function of relieving the burden on the labour market, the allocative, product value-oriented function and the training function. The resulting picture is not very encouraging. In terms of goals and effects the schemes hardly fulfil what should be required of them.

The function of relieving the labour market is still that on which the greatest emphasis is laid. Although in some cases substantial effects due to "displacement" and cashing in" lead to a distinct reduction in the net employment effect of the employment-oriented schemes as compared with the overall intended effect, all programmes investigated in this study showed positive effects on the overall employment level. In so far as the programmes were selective as regards certain target groups on the labour market they were used by the target groups. The marked differences between the selectivity trends of the respective types of programme is striking. This can be seen from the following overview:

Overview 3
Main labour market groups catered for by the different types of job creation scheme

	young workers	older workers	long-term unemployed	women
direct job creation schemes	+++		+++	+
indirect job creation schemes	+++	++	++	+
autonomy-oriented job creation schemes	+			
training-oriented job creation schemes	+++		+	+

The number of crosses shows the particular target group selectivities for the respective types of programme: the more crosses the more strongly oriented the design and the effect.

Even though the assessments we have made of some schemes in this study have been subject to reservations, despite evident success in relieving the labour market, in the majority of these cases this was due to a lack of allocative and training elements.

Because they are associated with the concept of "the public interest" the allocative functions are usually already emphasized in the design of a programme. In practice, however, the allocative aspect is often limited to occupational therapy for young people and long-term unemployed persons. This applies above all to the employment-oriented job creation schemes. Removing refuse from

parks, clearing work and simple building labourers' jobs are still the last resorts of the direct job creation programmes. The indirect programmes are mainly oriented towards those branches of the economy which are subject to a high level of competition. The consequence of this, which in some cases totally inappropriate, is the subsidization of wage costs for branches of the economy which are the least crisis-proof. However, there are suitable designs. These programmes are geared to the task of improving the structural bases of the economy and society by means of developing new products and production processes which result in a permanent improvement in the economic and cultural infrastructures and the provision of new social services. However, the main impression is that the allocative functions do not play a very important role in job creation schemes.

The reasons (or this biased orientation are to be found in the organizational sphere. With regard to the production of goods and services by the public sector) there is an inability to decide in favour of jobs with characteristics other than those represented in the bureaucratic machine. There is too close a connection between support for market-oriented production of goods and services and short-term relief for branches of the economy with structural problems. Often enough the state bodies do not co-operate enough with industry, industrial associations, trades unions and workers' representatives within firms. The political decision-makers also complain about these

gaps in the organization of the development and implementation of job creation programmes.

If designs of job creation programmes in the main neglect the allocative aspect the weak points in the linkage between job creation schemes and vocational training are even more pronounced. In the majority of the programmes analyzed in this study the training function has hardly been taken into account at all. This applies above all to the employment-oriented programmes. Even when at least in-firm training is required, this usually remains at the level of a declaration of intent. Since in-firm training plans frequently do not exist and are only in rare cases a pre-condition for the awarding of a grant, the nearest thing to vocational training offered is work experience. At best this consists in the maintaining of a low level of vocational and social qualifications. Only in a few cases are there links to institutions providing training outside of the firm. This type of programme is not very highly developed and the in-firm and out-of-firm elements of the training are provided sequentially. The training in institutions outside of the company takes place either before or after the actual work on the job. None of the Member States of the European Community has job creation schemes oriented towards alternance training.

The obvious deficiencies of the employment-oriented programmes are not found to the same extent in the training- and autonomy-oriented schemes. Whereas the attraction of the programmes geared towards autonomy lies in the linkage

of the allocative aspects with the provision of jobs, that of the training-oriented programmes is that they contribute towards improving vocational qualifications. The work and vocational experience programmes place more emphasis on in-firm training whilst others also try to incorporate training in joint company institutions combined with methods of training which include elements of alternance training. Finally, attention should be drawn to attempts to overcome gaps occurring in initial vocational training as a result of unbalanced orientation towards either the in-firm or school-based components by setting up job creation schemes geared towards training.

The employment-oriented schemes are the most highly represented, in terms both of volume and numbers of participants. It may be concluded that job creation schemes in the Member States of the European Community place too little emphasis on vocational training. When a training function is detectable in a programme it is limited to the assessment and maintenance of vocational qualifications and there is too little interest in adaptation training, re-training and further training. It is precisely these forms of vocational training which are particularly important in view of the evident structural transformation taking place in all countries of the Community. It is difficult to see how employment policies can afford to neglect adaptation training, re-training and further vocational training in the elaboration of job creation programmes given the lack of qualified workers in certain fields and the expected changes in job descriptions.

2. Are job creation schemes a good thing?

It is not difficult to point towards certain fundamental issues. Recent discussions of post-materialist human values include considerations concerning the stress associated with work, and analyze, somewhat perplexed, the time available to the unemployed. Since unemployed persons can satisfy at least the basic material needs, unemployment should be understood as leisure time, if we are to go by the discussion on post-materialist values. However, in this study it is not necessary to consider the value of work since certain answers are clear. In all countries of the European Community work has a high social value which is not defined on the basis of income alone. These prevailing values explain the loss not only of material status but also of the ability to cope with life suffered by individual unemployed people and manifested in the form of physical and mental illness. From the economic point of view the situation is even easier to understand: on the in-put side of production unemployment leads to a loss of human capital and investment in vocational training is erroneously considered to be unprofitable. Finally, the resulting loss to the overall economy in terms of production is so great that it would be easier to overcome material poverty.

There are many arguments in favour of gainful employment. The argument as to the efficiency of the relief effect which job creation schemes have on the employment situation has also been assessed as to a certain extent pos-

itive. Thus we are left with two points for discussion: firstly the question arises as to whether the desired effects on the employment level would be better achieved with alternatives to job creation schemes and secondly the question of funding should be considered.

Theory on labour market and employment policy includes a multitude of supply and demand-oriented measures to which we referred at the beginning of this report. We made the case for a mixture of supply and demand-oriented policies. The arguments in favour of an integrative concept for economic policy would appear convincing. Demand-oriented measures place a long-term burden on the national budgets and are unsuccessful when the hoped-for inflation-free increase in growth fails to occur. Supply-oriented measures lead at most to a rise in the employment level in the long term. Often enough there is too much reliance on hope rather than sensible policies. We would repeat the argument expounded at the beginning of this report: for a young unemployed person or someone who has been unemployed for a long time it does not help much to have to rely on a promise of better opportunities in the distant future. Both kinds of policy are a response to the same problem, which is termed the de-coupling effect: the increasing divergence of economic growth and labour market trends. Even when attempts to increase growth are successful the relief effect on the labour market is limited. The limits are obviously too narrow: the "victims" and "winners" of this growth process on the labour markets are only too easy to discern. This has also emerged in this study.

Job creation schemes offer obvious advantages over more comprehensive policies. Their effect is short-lived, they do not place a long-term burden on the budget and they distribute the burden of unemployment more fairly. When properly implemented, they represent an important contribution to an employment-oriented economic policy.

It is not easy to understand why labour market and social policies in the Member States of the European Community attempt to provide material support for unemployed persons but do not convert nearly enough of this consumption expenditure into productive expenditure for the creation of jobs by means of job creation schemes. It would appear that dispersion of the responsibilities for making budget decisions, lack of political courage and the effects of bureaucracy are obstacles to this.

State consumption expenditure on the financial support of the unemployed is high in all Member States. To make comparison easier in Table 12 these expenditures are expressed as percentages of the gross national products. It is also hardly surprizing that the exchequer costs of unemployment have increased in the course of time.

The exchequer costs of unemployment can be compared with the costs of the job creation programmes. On the basis of this comparison it is possible to determine the possibilities of converting the consumption expenditure - the exchequer costs of unemployment - into productive expenditure, i.e. job creation schemes. The empirical bases for

Table 13

Costs per participant in direct and indirect job creation programmes in 1980 (given in thousand units of the local currency)

Country	Direct job creation programmes	Indirect job creation pro-programmes	Average costs participant in direct and indirect job creation programmes	Costs per unempl. person
Belgium	391	250	383	229
Denmark	31	-	31	70
Federal Republic of Germany	25	7	17	14
France	24	-	24	17
Ireland	5.7	0.5	0.9	1.9
Netherlands	23	10	18	18
United Kingdom	2.5	0.3	0.8	2.4

Sources: eurostat, Employment and Unemployment, 1984
eurostat, Social Protection, 2/1984
Authors' own estimations FSA-EDV

such a comparison are given in Table 13. The expenditure per participant for employment-oriented programmes was estimated on the basis of the programmes analyzed (Table 12) and the exchequer costs per unemployed person are also derived from the data in Table 12. Although these are only rough estimates, it is nonetheless possible to cautiously draw the conclusion that job creation schemes can also be financed by converting the exchequer costs of unemployment. In the majority of cases the average expenditure per participant on a job creation programme is higher than the exchequer costs per unemployed person, however, in some cases it is surprizing how small the differences in the financial burden on the State are.

There is little to support the argument that job creation schemes are not financeable. The claim that the schemes are producing a "second labour market" also does not prove very convincing. It is possible to prevent the "second labour market" from becoming a second-class labour market by introducing appropriate regulations. This applies to problems associated with pay under short-term employment contracts (pay should be comparable to that for a "normal" job) and assurance of a high level of efficacy of the programmes by placing particular emphasis on the training element.

3. How links with vocational training can be achieved

The links between vocational training and job creation schemes as they exist at present are not satisfactory. The

training effect consists mainly in maintaining vocational qualifications in target groups with a low level of qualification. As we have already shown, this applies particularly to the employment-oriented schemes. There being a clear majority of this type of programme this can be put even more strongly: the present form of linkage between job creation schemes and vocational training in several cases tends to promote segmentation of the labour market rather than remove barriers between qualification-dependent sections of the labour market. Workers with little vocational training are at most given the opportunity to maintain a low level of qualification, while those with a better background can take advantage of opportunities to obtain adaptation and upgrading training and re-training. Present trends towards reinforcement of segments of the labour market resulting from differences in levels of training are not only maintained but can potentially be supported and promoted by the programmes themselves.

This evaluation of the employment-oriented schemes does not apply to those with a training-oriented approach, which are designed with the intention of introducing alternance training. There are, for instance, programmes in France and Italy whose purpose is to create employment-cum-training contracts. These designs place a stronger accent on adaptation and upgrading training than on the maintenance of existing qualifications and combine in-firm and joint-company or school-based training elements. Attention should also be drawn to attempts in the United Kingdom to develop elements of alternance training through the Youth

Training Scheme.

These are appropriate designs for attenuating the re--inforcement of labour market segments due to an imbalance between levels of qualification. Programmes of this kind should also be suitable for other countries in the process of incorporating alternance training components into their systems of education to close manifest gaps in the initial vocational training systems and not wishing to "take the leap" of fundamental reform.

Unfortunately these types of training-oriented job creation programmes which may be considered suitable have not been very highly developed in the European Community. Makers of labour market and vocational training policy may not consider this to be a disadvantage if there is a developed system of alternance training and there are wide opportunities for advanced and further vocational training. We cannot subscribe to this view. Even the existence of fully developed systems of initial vocational training in alternance form and policies on the promotion of vocational mobility and flexibility do not make it legitimate to do without training-oriented job creation schemes or to place the emphasis on the short-term relief effect on the labour market alone. In the present situation job creation schemes should be much more closely geared towards vocational training in all countries of the European Community.

Effective job creation programmes can also be developed on a decentralized basis. Examples of this are autonomy-

oriented programmes in France, Ireland and Italy which are for the specific promotion of employment initiatives, co-operatives and mutual benefit societies for unemployed persons, some of which are specifically for young people. The "Hamburger Modell" in the Federal Republic of Germany is also an example of a job creation scheme which promotes the initiative of the unemployed in creating work and social contexts. The common element in these approaches is that they place more emphasis on decentralized organization than the conventional programmes. Programmes with a conventional design have packages of measures which may be taken advantage of by existing institutions in the private and public sectors. In some programmes applications must be made for aid (application principle) while in others the statutory bases are such that if the conditions are fulfilled an insitution automatically has a claim to aid (claim principle). In conventional programmes the initiative to obtain the funds available is always taken by an existing institution. Some autonomy-oriented programmes work on a different basis, which promises to be quite successful. Unemployed persons themselves express interest in specific jobs with defined descriptions and develop their own programme, either on their own or in co-operation with other interested unemployed persons. If the undertaking fulfils certain conditions funds can be obtained under either the application principle or the claim principle. For a certain period the participants of the employment initiative receive a financial grant towards the costs associated with the work and the costs of investment.

A decentralized model with such a design requires support in the preparation phase. It is necessary to develop a suitable infrastructure for organizing and co-ordinating the initiatives for those interested in participating. In the actual "take-off" phase, training opportunities can improve the initiatives' chances of success.

This decentralized model has considerable advantages over the conventional organizational structures of job creation programmes. It makes it possible to take the interests and previous training of the unemployed participants into close consideration and promote personal initiative. It also makes it possible to closely adapt the types of job offered to the economic and social requirements of small social units (communities). When job creation programmes have a decentralized structure the interpretation of the "public interest" from the working and living conditions at the district or small community level is more effective.

Experience gained with job creation schemes in the past and evaluations show that a type of design should be developed for programmes today which may be described as "third generation". The first generation of job creation programmes concentrated on the employment element alone. In the second generation of programmes, which were developed in the mid-seventies, there was more emphasis on the principle of the public interest and welfare. The third generation will have the task of further developing the role of vocational training in the objectives and designs of the programmes. This will mean not only assessing and main-

taining levels of qualification already attained but also including adaptation and upgrading training, re-training and further training in the list of objectives. It is possible to stipulate training plans and the combination of in-company and joint-company training elements in the form of alternance training as a condition for the granting of aid to intiatives as early as at the planning stage. Not until the accent is clearly placed on vocational training will job creation schemes be free from the still evident shortcoming of concentrating on the short-term relief of the labour market alone.

Effective organization and decision-making systems which permit the integration of labour market- and training-oriented elements in job creation programmes exist in only a few of the Member States of the Community. The State bodies responsible for labour market policy frequently do not co-operate with those versed in and responsible for vocational training policies. Only recently have some countries become aware of the lack of co-ordination between the labour market and vocational training authorities and introduced organizatory measures to correct the resulting deficiencies.

However, it will only be possible to solve the co-ordination and organization problems when the target groups are chosen more on the basis of the qualifications of the unemployed. Labour market policy is geared towards target groups such as young people, older workers, women and the long-term unemployed. Policy on vocational training is

geared towards qualifications, on the basis of clearly defined or at least recognizable job descriptios or requirements. Only a policy which places more emphasis on the qualifications of social groups relevant to labour market policy with the express aim of creating links to and developing vocational qualifications will create the necessary preconditions for a combination of job creation programmes with vocational training.

The European Social Fund will assume an important role in the development of job creation programmes with close links between the allocative aspect, the relief effect on the labour market and vocational training. The Fund was relatively late to start supporting programmes combining policies on training and employment. Innovatory programmes for action in the field of vocational training and employment are still under-developed today. The European Social Fund will have to place greater emphasis on the integration of vocational training and job creation in the action programmes in future.

It will still be possible for job creation programmes to be an essential element of employment-oriented economic policy in the eighties. They are not suitable as occupational therapy for unemployed persons with poor prospects on the labour market. This report has revealed what possibilities job creation schemes could have if more effective combinations of employment effects, demand-oriented work and vocational training are aimed at and achieved.

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List of abbreviations

ABM	- Arbeitsbeschaffungsmaßnahmen (Bundesrepublik Deutschland)
AFG	- Arbeitsförderungsgesetz (Bundesrepublik Deutschland)
AFPA	- Agence pour la formation professionelle des adultes (Amt für die berufliche Weiterbildung Erwachsener, Frankreich)
AnCO	- Industrial Training Authority (Ausbildungsagentur für industriebezogene Berufsbildung, Irland)
ANPE	- Agence nationale pour l'emploi (Nationale Arbeitsvermittlung, Frankreich)
BA	- Bundesanstalt für Arbeit (Bundesrepublik Deutschland)
CP	- Community Programme (kommunales Arbeitsbeschaffungsprogramm, Vereinigtes Königreich)
EIFL	- Erhervsindroduecerende kurser for ledige herunder kurser for kvinder (Berufseinführende Kurse für Arbeitslose, darunter speziell Kurse für Frauen, Dänemark)
EIFU	- Erhervsindroduecerende kurser for ungere (Berufseinführende Kurse für Jugendliche, Dänemark)
EIS	- Employment Incentive Scheme (Beschäftigungsförderungsprogramm, Irland)
ELKEPA	- Center for Productivity (Produktivitätszentren, Griechenland)
ESF	- European Social Fund (Europäischer Sozialfonds)
EWYES	- Environmental Works Youth Employment Scheme (Umweltarbeiten - Beschäftigungsprogramm für Jugendliche, Irland)
FFPPS	- Fonds de la formation professionelle et de la promotion sociale (Fonds zur beruflichen Bildung und sozialen Förderung, Frankreich)
FNE	- Fondsnational d'emploi (Nationaler Beschäftigungsfonds, Frankreich)
IDA	- Industrial Development Agency (Industrieentwicklungsagentur, Irland)
IPTS	- In Plant Training Scheme (Programm für innerbetriebliche Fortbildung, Vereinigtes Königreich)
JSO	- Lov am jobskabelse (Gesetz über Arbeitsbeschaffung;bekannter als -Jobskabeleserordningen-Arbeitsbeschaffungsverordnung, Dänemark)

JTO - Arbejdstilbad Til Ledige (Arbeitsangebot an Arbeitslose, Dänemark)

KATEE - Post-secondary Technical and Vocational Schools (Zentren für höhere technische und berufliche Ausbildung, Griechenland)

MSC - Manpower Services Commission (Arbeitsmarktverwaltung, Vereinigtes Königreich)

OAED - Organization of Labour Employment Administration (Nationales Arbeitsamt, Griechenland)

ONEM - Office national de l'emploi (Nationaler Beschäftigungsfonds,Belgien)

PEP - Premium Employment Program (Programm: Prämien für zusätzliche Beschäftigung, Irland)

SOB - Scholing in Samenwerking Tussen Overheid en Bedrijfsleven (Berufsbildungsbeihilfen in Kooperation zwischen Regierung und Industrie, Niederlande)

STEP - Special Temporary Employment Program (Spezielles Programm für zeitlich befristete Beschäftigung, Vereinigtes Königreich)

YEA - Youth Employment Agency (Agentur für Jugendbeschäftigung, Irland)

YOP - Youth Opportunity Scheme (Programm: Chancen für Jugendliche, Vereinigtes Königreich)

YTS - Youth Training Scheme (Ausbildungsprogramm für Jugendliche, Vereinigtes Königreich)

WEP - Work Experience Program (Arbeitserfahrungsprogramm, Irland)

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Glossary

Terms frequently used in labour market and vocational training theory.

Allocative aspect

Effects which, in the case in hand, are exerted by a measure of labour market policy on the temporal or spatial distribution of resources (labour, capital, natural environment).

"Cashing in"

Refers to the fact that State subsidies support jobs which would have been created or retained even without the subsidy. In such cases the subsidies merely serve to defray costs or are windfall profits.

Conversion training

General term for all types of training whose aim is to impart to workers the skills they need to master new production techniques within their own sphere.

Decoupling

The phenomenon that economic growth can remain without effect on the level of employment (jobless growth). One possible form of decoupling between the services and labour markets can be explained by the connections between growth, labour productivity, working hours and the labour supply.

Displacement

Denotes the situation in which a policy measure (e.g. a job creation scheme) whose objective is to maintain specific jobs has negative effects on other jobs. Thus job creation schemes in the public sector can result in

the inhibition of private production; the granting of subsidies to certain private firms can lead to falls in production in companies not receiving subsidies; finally, displacement between groups of workers is also conceivable, e.g. subsidization of new jobs for young people leading to a fall in the number of jobs for older workers.

Human capital approach

Approach to training processes which arises out of the reflexion in human capital theory according to which training can be considered to be an investment leading to higher productivity and incomes in the future.

Integration quota

Designation for the following quotient: that portion of a defined group (e.g. participants in a programme) which, after a certain period, has reached an employability status comparable with the objectives of the programme divided by the total number of members of the respective group.

Job creation scheme

Temporary subsidization (up to 100 %) by State or para-State institutions of wage costs and in rare cases also of capital charges.

Manpower approach

Approach (usually prognostic) employed to explain and develop the distribution of vocations on the basis of the economy's training requirements.

Polygon

Term used in decision theory to denote not necessarily contradictory but always incongruent goal-means relationships.

Relief effect on the labour market

Positive effect of a given scheme on the level and structure of unemployment or employment.

Segmentation of the labour market

The structuration of the labour market in at least two consolidated sections of the labour market of differing quality. The respective sections of the labour market are characterized, for example, by the prevailing methods of placement, the stabilit/instability of employment, wage level, career prospects and the social backgrounds of those supplying the labour. There is no or only limited exchange between the sections via the price mechanism (changes in wage rates).

Selection process

When there is an excess supply of labour on the labour market the total number of decisions made by an enterprise to take on or dismiss employees leads to a situation in which workers with given characteristics (age, sex, training and work backgrounds) become unemployed particularly frequently and are increasingly difficult to place in employment.

Social skills

Skills which are to a great extent independent of the specific requirements of a given job and which are required of a worker per se by production reliant on the division of labour, in particular industrial production, e.g. punctuality, the acceptance of hierarchies, etc.

Upgrading training

General term covering all kinds of training with the objective of imparting the skills needed to cross the career barriers associated with a person's current qualifications.

Wage cost subsidies, marginal

Also referred to in Egnlish as an incremental subsidy. In contrast to a general wage subsidy the assumption of wage costs is limited to those of newly created jobs.

Wage cost subsidies, selective

Unlike general wage subsidies in this case the assumption of wage costs is dependent on the recruitment of additional employees (which is, however, often unnecessary) from a certain social category (e.g. long-term unemployed, women, young people, etc.).

The author of this study was able to conduct interviews with the following persons in some of the Member States of the European Community:

France: Prof. Greffe, Centre de Recherche "Travail et Société"
M. Prieur, Délégation à l'Emploi
M. Clémenceau, Ministère de la Formation Professionelle
Mme. Berton, Centre INFFO
Mme. Gaudin, Centre d'Etudes de l'Emploi
Prof. de Gaudemar, DATAR

Ireland: Bena L. Murphy, AnCO
Prof. Michael Ross, Economic and Social Research Institute
Patricia Curtin, Youth Employment Agency
Anne Fouley and John Agnew, Department of Labour
Dr. Michael Redmond, Industrial Development Authority

Italy: Dott. Brancati, CESPE Institute
Nadio Delai, CENSIS
Mario Brutti, CENSIS
Dott. Labor, ISFOL
Alfredo Tamborlini, ISFOL

Greece: Prof. Dr. L. Katseli, KEPE
Antonis Vorloou, KEPE
I. Glytsos, KEPE
Prof. Dr. M. Nikolinakos, ISGE
Dr. Kodonas, ELKEPA
Dr. Bougas, Ministry of Labour
Dr. Angelos Zisimopoulos and co-workers, O.A.E.D.

United Kingdom: William Daniel and co-workers, Policy Studies Institute, London
Mr. Smelt and co-workers, Ministry of Labour

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Background material

Table 1* Macro-economic indicators

		Real $\dot{Y}_{GDP}$	GDP deflator	% change in employment level	Unemployed as % of labour force	Growth in productivity	Civilian labour force[3]	$\dot{Y}_E - \dot{Y}_B$
Belgium	1971-80	3.3	7.8	0.3	5.9	3.0	0.0	0.9
	1981	- 1.2	5.4	- 2.5	10.3	0.9	0.4	2.2
	1982	0.1	7.6	- 1.3	12.1	1.4	0.3	1.0
	1983	0.4	5.9	- 1.4	13.4	2.0	0.0	1.4
	1984 1)	1.3	5.5	0.2	13.4	1.3	0.1	0.6
	1985 2)	1.0	5.3	- 0.3	13.8	1.3	./.	./.
Denmark	1971-80	2.4	9.6	0.7	3.8	1.7	1.1	0.9
	1981	- 0.9	10.5	- 1.4	9.2	0.5	0.8	2.2
	1982	3.4	10.5	0.5	9.9	2.9	0.6	0.1
	1983	2.5	7.6	0.5	10.5	2.0	0.7	0.2
	1984 1)	3.0	5.5	1.3	10.2	2.5	0.3	- 1.0
	1985 2)	2.9	4.5	1.4	9.8	2.5	./.	./.
Fed. Rep. of Germany	1971-80	2.9	5.2	- 0.1	2.8	3.0	0.2	0.2
	1981	0.2	4.8	- 0.7	4.7	0.9	0.8	1.5
	1982	- 1.0	4.8	- 1.8	6.8	0.8	0.6	2.2
	1983	1.0	3.2	- 1.7	8.4	4.2	- 0.1	1.6
	1984 1)	2.4	1.9	- 0.4	8.5	2.9	0.2	0.4
	1985 2)	2.5	2.1	0.0	8.5	2.5	./.	./.
France	1971-80	3.4	9.5	0.4	3.8	3.2	0.8	0.4
	1981	0.2	12.9	- 0.7	7.8	0.9	0.3	2.0
	1982	1.8	12.8	- 0.8	8.7	2.6	0.7	2.5
	1983	0.7	10.8	- 0.6	8.4	1.3	- 0.3	0.3
	1984 1)	1.4	7.3	- 1.3	10.0	2.9	- 0.1	1.4
	1985 2)	1.7	5.9	- 1.4	11.6	3.1	./.	./.
Greece	1971-80	4.7	17.8	0.6	./.	4.1	1.3	0.7
	1981	- 0.3	19.3	0.8	6.2	- 5.2	0.8	- 4.0
	1982	- 0.1	24.4	- 1.3	5.8	0.9	0.8	1.8
	1983	0.3	19.8	0.5	7.9	- 0.2	0.8	0.3
	1984 1)	2.2	18.3	0.3	8.6	1.9	0.8	0.5
	1985 2)	2.0	17.7	0.3	8.8	1.7	./.	./.
Great Britain	1971-80	1.9	14.0	0.2	4.2	1.6	0.6	0.4
	1981	- 1.3	11.6	- 4.2	9.2	2.9	- 0.6	3.6
	1982	2.3	7.2	- 1.4	11.0	3.9	- 0.9	0.7
	1983	3.3	5.1	- 0.4	11.7	3.7	0.1	0.3
	1984 1)	2.8	4.1	1.1	11.7	0.9	0.2	- 0.9
	1985 2)	3.0	5.4	1.0	11.8	2.0	./.	./.
Ireland	1971-80	4.6	14.2	1.0	7.4	3.6	1.0	0.0
	1981	2.9	17.1	- 0.6	10.3	3.5	2.0	2.6
	1982	1.9	15.8	- 0.2	12.3	2.1	1.9	1.7
	1983	0.6	10.4	- 1.9	14.8	2.5	1.6	3.5
	1984 1)	3.1	7.6	- 0.5	16.3	3.6	1.4	2.9
	1985 2)	2.6	5.8	1.1	16.3	1.5	./.	./.
Italy	1971-80	3.1	14.7	0.5	6.0	2.6	0.9	0.4
	1981	- 0.2	17.6	0.3	8.8	- 0.7	1.3	0.8
	1982	- 0.3	17.5	- 0.2	8.7	- 0.1	0.3	0.5
	1983	- 1.2	15.0	0.2	9.7	- 1.4	1.1	0.9
	1984 1)	2.9	10.2	0.5	10.2	2.4	1.2	0.7
	1985 2)	2.3	7.7	0.2	10.5	2.1	./.	./.
Luxembourg	1971-80	3.1	6.3	1.3	0.3	1.8	1.7	0.8
	1981	- 0.3	5.5	0.0	1.0	- 0.3	0.4	0.4
	1982	- 0.9	9.4	0.1	1.2	- 1.0	0.5	0.2
	1983	- 1.4	7.6	- 0.4	1.6	- 1.0	- 0.5	- 0.1
	1984 1)	2.8	6.8	- 0.8	1.7	2.8	- 0.6	0.2
	1985 2)	1.9	6.2	- 0.4	1.8	2.3	./.	./.
Netherlands	1971-80	2.9	7.7	0.2	3.4	2.7	1.2	1.0
	1981	- 0.7	5.5	- 1.5	9.4	0.8	3.0	4.3
	1982	- 1.7	6.0	- 2.5	12.6	0.8	2.7	5.2
	1983	0.6	1.9	- 2.1	15.6	2.7	2.1	3.2
	1984 1)	2.0	2.5	- 0.2	15.9	2.3	1.0	1.2
	1985 2)	1.8	1.0	0.2	15.9	1.7	./.	./.
EC total	1971-80	2.9	9.8	0.2	4.2	2.7	0.6	0.6
	1981	- 0.4	9.2	- 1.6	7.8	1.2	0.5	2.2
	1982	0.6	9.0	- 1.3	9.4	1.9	0.3	1.6
	1983	0.9	6.4	- 0.7	10.6	1.6	0.3	1.0
	1984 1)	2.2	4.7	- 0.0	11.0	2.2	0.4	0.4
	1985 2)	2.3	4.1	0	11.5	2.3	./.	./.

1) Estimates at October 1984

2) Estimates at October 1984 based on current policy

3) Averages 1970 - 1980

Source: Commission of the European Community, Annual Economic Report 1984-85, KOM (84) 587 fin. dated 7.11.1984; European Economy No. 18/1983

Table 2* Production, employment and labour force - current and future trends

	GDP 1)	Level of employment in economy as a whole 2)	Labour force 1983 = 100	
Belgium				
Denmark				
Fed. Rep. of Germany				
France				
Greece				
Great Britain				
Ireland				
Italy				
Luxembourg				
Netherlands				
EC total				

1) At 1975 prices

2) Annual growth rates (civilian employment)

Source: Prognos AG, Euro-Report 1985, Vol. A, Industrialized Countries, Basel 1984

Job creation schemes in the different Member States

A country-by-country breakdown in alphabetical order

Overview of the programmes: Job creation and vocational training

Belgium

Programme	Sponsor	Duration of the scheme	Duration of the promotion	Vol. of funds in mill. BFR p.a.	Type and extent of promotion	No. of participants p.a.	Content + form of training	Special provisions	Objectives: Undertaking	Objectives: Participants
Practical training periods for young people (Stages des jeunes)	ONEM[1]	Starting 3/76	6 mths for full-time employment, 12 mths. for part-time empl., extension up to twice this length possible	78: 108 79: 294 80: 207 81: 205	10 % of standard wage from State. 90 % from the firm. For firms with fewer than 50 employees additional premium of BFR 30 000; from 8/81 onwards BFR 50 000 for employees working half time, BFR 100 000 for full-time empl.	78: 31 471 79: 30 778 80: 28 299 81: 28 908	On-the-job training	Required acceptance rate for firms with over 100 empl. 1 %. Later 2 % for over 50 empl.. from 1981 onwards new premiums only when required no. of trainees already taken on	Non-selective	Under 30 yrs. of age, without vocational experience or not more than 6 months, mainly 16-18-yr.-olds
Special programme for temporary employment (Cadre spécial temporaire)	ONEM	Starting 1977	Max. 5 years	78: 4 000 79: 10 000 80: 10 800 11: 11 500	95 % of the standard wage in 1st subsidized year, then 75 % from 2nd to 5th year, then in 5th year only 50 %	78: 22 119 79: 27 426 80: 22 107 81: 25 670	On-the-job training	In projects lasting longer than 2 yrs., 1/3 of the employees must have been unemployed for at least 2 years	Selective, work for community benefit	Long-term unemployed, young people, women
Conversion premiums (Primes d'adaptation et de réadaptation)	ONEM	10/79 - 3/82	Max. 2 years	10/79 - 3/81: 1 300	BFR 250 000 per employee[2] From 8/81 onwards BFR 300 000 per empl.	10/79 - 3/81: 5 200	On-the-job training	Net rise in employment required, max. no. of premiums: 1 for firms with 5 employees, 10% of no. of employees for firms with over 40	Selective, private enterprises with fewer than 500 employees, firms with max. 38 h/week	From 8/81 onwards elderly long-term unemployed
Job creation in the public sector (Mise au travail par les pouvoirs publics)	ONEM	Starting 1976	Max. 2 years	78: 8 154 79: 10 081 80: 11 871 81: 12 319	Standard wage	78: 31 005 79: 36 252 80: 35 622 81: 35 989	On-the-job training	Participants remain registered as job-seekers	Selective Until 1975 only public enterprises	Unemployed persons

1) ONEM: Nationales Arbeitsamt (Office national de l'emploi)

Overview of the programmes: Job creation and vocational training

Denmark

Programme	Sponsor	Duration of the scheme	Duration of the promotion	Vol. of funds in mill. DKR p.a.	Type and extent of promotion	No. of participants p.a.	Content + form of training	Special provisions	Objectives: Undertaking	Objectives: Participants
Job offers for the unemployed (Arbejdstilbud til ledige)	Regional labour commissions/ placement agencies	Starting 10/78		80: 340 81: 658		80: 11 044	Provision for linkage of work to previous experience also by means of special courses and other types of further training open to participants	Participants can be put under pressure to do further training on pain of losing insurance coverage. No insurance claim for periods of integrated training / At firm level the approval of a committee with equal representation of the social partners or shop steward (smaller firms) is required.		Long-term unemployed registered with the insurances, of whom those under 25 yrs. unemployed for 12 out of the last 15 months and those over 25 yrs. unemployed for over 24 months.
			In the private sector 9 months		Wage subsidy of DKR 36 per h. for under 25s and DKR 32 for the over 25s (1982) (approx. 50-60 % of wage paid)					
			In the public sector 7 months		Fixed-term employment in special projects by primary and "Amtskommuner"					
			Special courses: 7 weeks Max. duration of participation in other courses: 2 mths.		40 % of jobs provided by the central State by creation of fixed-term contracts				No assumption of regular community tasks	
Ordinance on job creation (Colokabelze-ordningen) incl. expiring sections of Law No. 488	Regional labour commissions/ placement agencies		12 months with opportunity to extend to 24 months, partic. in case of projects producing non-substitutable products		wage subsidy of 80 % of average unemployment benefit in 1983: DKR 40 per hour	Acc. to Law No. 488 80: 12 050 81: 12 350	On-the-job training with qualified instruction and entitlement to attend all other further training courses offered, in some cases alternance training within the framework of the projects	Provision of funds is dependent on the (planned) production of new products/ Communities are encouraged to organize production acc. to free market criteria in line with and with the aid of the programmes	Non-selective	Preference given to persons unemployed for over 3 months, under 25s

Overview of the programmes: Job creation and vocational training

Federal Republic of Germany I

Programme	Sponsor	Duration of the scheme	Duration of the promotion	Vol. of funds in mill. DM p.a.	Type and extent of promotion	No. of participants p.a.	Content + form of training	Special provisions	Objectives: Undertaking	Objectives: Participants
Job creation schemes	Federal Labour Office	Starting 1979	Usually 1 yr., extension to 2 poss., max. 3 years if sponsor agrees to give worker permanent job	78: 795.8 79: 1 031.8 80: 1 025.4 81: 1 053.9 82: 864.5 83: 1 228.6 1-9/84: 1 140.9 (incl. job creation schemes for elderly workers	80-90 % of the standard wage or that usually paid locally. The difference to full wages can be taken from funds of the respective 'Land'	78: 51 236 79: 51 192 80: 41 251 81: 36 461 82: 29 169 83: 44 169 9/84: 62 710 (incl. job creation schemes for elderly workers)	On-the-job training	Employment ends when labour exchange finds worker a new job or place to train. The work must be to the community benefit but not such as is usually the domain of public enterprises	Selective, public employers, non-profit making organizations, private employers when the subsidization boosts the labour market in line with economic and social policy. Not in regions with above average employment	Unemployed persons having been out of work for at least 6 months and receiving unemployment benefit or social security benefits
Job creation schemes for elderly workers (Arbeitsbeschaffungsmaßnahmen für ältere Arbeitnehmer)	Federal Labour Office	Starting 1969	Less than 5 years		At the start of the scheme 50-70 % of local standard wage. The subsidy is reduced by at least 10 % within max. 1 year. The subsidization ends at the end of the year of promotion in which the rate is 30 %		On-the-job training	In addition loans or allowances can be granted to employers for establishing, expanding or equipping enterprises or departments of enterprises when this benefits elderly workers	Selective, no public employers	Unemployed persons over 55 yrs. having been unemployed for at least12 of the last 18 months. Only for workers for whom no job can be found in vocational training programmes
Induction grants (Einarbeitungszuschüsse)	Federal Labour Office	Starting 1969	Max. 1 year	78: 76.5 79: 120.3 80: 186.1 81: 161.1 82: 70.3 83: 115.1 1-8/84: 94.3	Max. 80 % of the negotiated standard wage or that usually paid locally	78: 17 371 79: 23 719 80: 28 822 81: 26 471 82: 11 496 83: 20 127 1-9/84: 13 651	Induction plan required, with instruction, on-the-job training	Since 1979 the agreement of the works' Council required	Non-selective	Unskilled and semi-skilled unemployed and workers under threat of unemployment having already worked at least 6 months

Overview of the programmes: Job creation and vocational training

Federal Republic of Germany II

Programme	Sponsor	Duration of the scheme	Duration of the promotion	Vol. of funds in mill. DM p.a.	Type and extent of promotion	No. of participants p.a.	Content + form of training	Special provisions	Objectives: Undertaking	Objectives: Participants
Federal German labour market policy programme for regions with special employment problems	Federal Labour Office, Federal Govt., and the 4 "Länder" (states) concerned	8/79 - 7/80		8/79 - 1/81: 856.6					Regional, the 23 labour exchange districts with an unemployment rate of over 6 % in 1978	Selective
Priority Area (Schwerpunkt) 2: re-integration of unskilled and long-term unemployed persons	Ditto	Ditto		8/79 - 1/81: 73		8/79 - 4/81: 4536 (This figure is also included under induc-grants)	Induction plan required, with instruction, on-the-job training	works' Council participates in elaboration of induction plan; no. of employees must be raised; at least 9 months' employment after end of State aid	Ditto	
- Induction grant			max. 12 months		90 % of wage		Ditto, attainment of non-firm-specific qualifications also stipulated			Unskilled unemployed or unemployed persons out of work for at least 6 months, women
- Supplementary integration grant			6 - 12 months		70 % of wage, after not less than one year's unemployment 80 % of wage		Ditto	Only paid following induction grant		At least 6 months' unemployment

Overview of the programmes: Job creation and vocational training

Federal Republic of Germany III

Programme	Sponsor	Duration of the scheme	Duration of the promotion	Vol. of funds in mill. DM p.a.	Type and extent of promotion	No. of participants p.a.	Content + form of training	Special provisions	Objectives Undertaking	Objectives Participants
Priority Area (Schwerpunkt) 3: job creation schemes for improving the social services and social infrastructure	Ditto	Ditto		8/79 - 1/81: 370.9 This figure is also included under job creation schemes			8/79 - 1/81: 9 379 (This figure is also included under job creation schemes)	On-the-job training	Ditto	Unemployed persons, particularly women seekers of part-time work
- Social Services			2 years		100 % of wage, also DM 1000 per new job, also DM 2000 for long-term unemployed persons (over 6 months) with poor qualifications				Ditto, also sponsors of newer mobile and already existing services	
- Improvement of the social infrastructure			18 months with optional extension to 29 months for long-term unemployed (over 6 months)		80 % of wage, for long-term unemployed the rate is raised to 100 % of the wage					
DM-100 million programme for job creation in Hamburg	Federal Labour Office, Senate of the Free Hanseatic City of Hamburg	Started 12/82 Intended to run for 3 years	Normally 1 - 3 years, for elderly workers 5 years	12/82-12/83: 99.6, of which 40.5 from Hamburg city funds, the rest being provided by the Federal Labour Office	100 % of wage	83.2 750 (This figure is also included under job creation schemes)	In some cases concomitant vocational courses, on-the-job training	The jobs must be additional, establishment of an "employment company" (Beschäftigungs GmbH) to carry works in the building sector	Selective. Public employers, non-profit-making organizations doing work in lic interest	Unemployed persons, particularly white-collar workers, graduates, teachers, industrial workers, young people, recipients of social security benefits

Overview of the programmes: Job creation and vocational training

France 1

Programme	Sponsor	Duration of the scheme	Duration of the promotion	Vol. of funds in mill. FF p.a.	Type and extent of promotion	No. of participants p.a.	Content + form of training	Special provisions	Objectives Undertaking	Objectives Participants
National Employment Pacts (Pactes pour l'emploi I, II + III), Plan for the future of Youth (Plan avenir jeunes) and Supplementary Measures	FFPPS[2]	Pact I: 7/77-2/78 Pact II: 7/78-3/79 Pact III: 1st company 7/79-6/80 2nd company 7/80-6/81 Plan for the Future of Youth 7/81-6/82		79: 2 206 80: 3 391 81: 5 013 1/82-7/82: 2 878		7/77-7/78: 575 905 7/78-3/79: 313 157 7/79-6/80: 454 833 7/80-6/81: 535 155 7/81-6/82: 481 833				
Settling-in allowance (exonérations emploi) incl.	Ditto	7/77-6/82	6 months	79: 448 80: 770 81: 915 82: 600 (incl. settling-in allowance for elderly unemployed)	Exemption from social security contributions, from 2nd Pact onwards only 50 % exemption	7/77-2/78: 229 949 7/78-3/79: 94 943 7/79-6/80: 166 562 7/80-6/81: 158 966 7/81-6/82: 140 209	On-the-job training	No reduction of employment level for economy's sake	Selective: private enterprises and acc. to size of firm (max. 500 employees) or max. 100 mill. turnover	Job-seeking young people between 16 and 23 from 7/78 onwards also single women with children, from 7/79 onwards 16-26 yrs.
the settling-in allowance for elderly unemployed (Aide chômeurs agés)		7/79-6/82	6 months	(see above)	Ditto	of whom elderly unemployed 7/79-6/80: 3 408 7/80-6/81: 2 662	On-the-job training	Ditto	Non-selective	Long-term unemployed over 45 years
and										
the premium for taking on a first employee in a craft enterprise (Prime à l'embauche du premier salarié artisanat)		7/79-6/82	6 months	80: 14.4 81: 14.1 82: 43.4	Ditto	of whom in one-man craft enterprise 7/79-6/80: 11 596 7/80-6/81: 11 930 7/81-6/82: 13 407	On-the-job training		Selective The first employee in a craft enterprise	Unemployed persons

Overview of the programmes: Job creation and vocational training

France II

Programme	Sponsor	Duration of the scheme	Duration of the promotion	Vol. of funds in mill. FF p.a.	Type and extent of promotion	No. of participants p.a.	Content + form of training	Special provisions	Objectives: Undertaking	Objectives: Participants
- Training courses (Stages en centres de formation), from 7/82 onwards, as distinct from	Ditto	7/77-6/82	6 months, from 7/78 onwards 6 months, 800 hours' training	79: 671 80: 717 81: 729 82: 1 016	Remuneration of 25% to 90% of minimum wage, depending on age and family situation	7/77-2/78: 68 652 7/78-3/79: 55 915 7/79-6/80: 46 227 7/80-6/81: 36 851 7/81-6/82: 65 663	Joint-company instruction		Not applicable	Job-seeking young people between 16 and 25 years, from 7/78 onwards also single women with children
the training course for qualification (Stage de qualification)	Ditto	Starting 7/82	6-24 months, average 8 mths.		Remuneration of FF 500 per month for first 6 mths. of training, then FF 700 per mth.; travel + board expenses and training hours paid (FF 16 per hour per trainee), fixed sum of FF 1 000 for the firms	7/82-6/83: 30 000 7/83-3/84: 29 000	Joint-company instruction, average 100 h. per month, general and theoretical instruction, 30 % of training in-firm; on-the-job training		Selective, no temporary employment companies	Job-seeking young people between 16 and 18 years with no school-leaving certificate
and the integration course (Stage d'insertion)		Starting 7/82	Max. 30 months		Ditto, but fixed sum of FF 2 000 for firms (if course lasts 6 months 50 % increase possible)	7/82-6/83: 40 000 7/83-3/84: 33 000	Joint-company instruction: average 70 h. per mth., adjustment to working life, careers orientation' on-the-job training		Ditto	Job-seeking young people between 16 and 18 yrs. without a school-leaving certificate or idea of what they want to do, with psychological problems or difficult family background
- Practical training in enterprises (Stages pratiques en entreprises)	Ditto	7/77-6/82	6-8 months; 7/78-12/78 6 mths.; from 1/79 onwards 6 months	79: 191 80: 476 81: 1 667 82: 410	Remuneration of 25% - 90% of minimum wage, depending on age	7/77-2/78: 145 679 7/78-3/79: 20 332 7/79-6/80: 55 303 7/80-6/81: 144 982 7/81-6/82: 75 156	200 hours' instruction, from 7/78 onwards 120 h., general technical training		Selective, no temporary employment companies	Unemployed persons between 16-25 years, from 7/78 onwards single women with children

Overview of the programmes: Job creation and vocational training

France III

Programme	Sponsor	Duration of the scheme	Duration of the promotion	Vol. of funds in mill. FF p.a.	Type and extent of promotion	No. of participants p.a.	Content + form of training	Special provisions	Objectives: Undertaking	Objectives: Participants
- Training-Employment Contract (Contrat emploi-formation)	Ditto	Starting 7/77	1 - 2 years	79: 476 80: 669 81: 821 82: 1 066	Exemption from social insurance contributions, in some cases payment of training costs; from 7/78 onwards payment of 3.5 times minimum wage per hour of training	7/77 - 2/78: 26 334 7/78 - 3/79: 38 120 7/79 - 6/80: 64 253 7/80 - 6/81: 64 719 7/81 - 6/82: 72 263 7/82 - 6/83: 77 884 7/83 - 6/84: 46 169	In-firm and joint company instruction: 150 - 1 200 hours		Selective No temporary employment agencies, no public employers	Job-seeking young people between 17 and 26 years, women with children, the handicapped, certain long-term unemployed persons without basic vocational training
From 7/83 onwards also Employment-Orientation Contract (Contrat emploi-orientation) and		Starting 7/83	Over 4 months		Payment for hours of training (FF 3 680)	7/83 - 3/84: 2 991	80 hours' instruction, on-the-job training		Ditto	Job-seeking people between 17 and 26 years who have no basic training and do not know what they want to do
Employment-Conversion Contract (Contrat emploi-adaptation)		Starting 7/83	Over 1 year		Payment for hours of training (FF 6 900)	7/83 - 3/84: 14 522	150 hours' instruction, on-the-job training		Ditto	Job-seeking young people between 17 and 26 years with vocational training
Promotion of training by apprenticeship (exonérations apprentissage)	Ditto	Starting 7/77	max. 2 years, 7/78 - 3/79	79: 383 80: 539	Exemption from social insurance	7/77 - 2/78: 106 271 7/78 - 3/79: 103 847 7/79 - 6/80: 122 480	On-the-job training; general and theoretical training in	Obligation to pay apprentices 15-60 % of minimum	Selective From 7/81	Mainly job-seeking young people
			max. 1 year, - 6/81 1 - 2 years, from 7/81 onwards in firms with over 10 employees 2 years, in exceptional cases up to 3 years	81: 692 82: 700	contributions	7/80 - 6/81: 127 637 7/81 - 6/82: 126 566 7/82 - 6/83: 119 000 7/83 - 3/84: 110 000	joint-company training centres, not less than 360 hrs. per year	wage, depending on age and time in apprenticeship, monitoring of training by inspectors	onwards priority given to small enterprises	tween 16 and 20 years
Unemployed persons found enterprises (chômeur-créateur)	ASSEDIC[4]	Starting 1/79	6 months	80: 44 81: 508.9 82: 773	Capitalization of unemployment benefit for the following 6 months, from 3/84 onwards fixed sum of FF 30 000	79: 9 200 80: 13 800 81: 29 360 82: 39 860 1/83-6/83: 20 000	On-the-job training, opportunity to attend concomitant courses		Selective, take-over or establishment of enterprises	Unemployed persons

rview of the programmes: Job creation and vocational training

France IV

ogramme	Sponsor	Duration of the scheme	Duration of the promotion	Vol. of funds in mill. FF p.a.	Type and extent of promotion	No. of participants p.a.	Content + form of training	Special provisions	Objectives Undertaking	Objectives Participants
loyment To community nefit loi d'util- 8 collective)	Employment "delegation" (Délégation à l'emploi)	4/79 -4/82	1 year	79: 35.5 80: 37.5 81: 38.0 82: 8.9	Fixed sum of FF 24 000 (approx. 70 % of the minimum wage	80/81: 5 000	On-the-job training		Selective, small and medium enterprises, experimental-type work to the community benefit	Highly qualified unemployed or persons seeking a new job and having no specific vocational experience
home promoting local itiative mploi initiative locale)	Ditto	Starting 10/81	Ditto	81: 19.6 82: 288.6	Fixed sum of FF 36 000 (approx. 70 % of the minimum wage)	81: 2 716 82: 10 701 83: 5 000	Ditto		Ditto	Ditto
actical aining period for young lunteers tages jeune lontaire)	Ministries of Culture, Youth, Sport and Recreation	Starting 1/82	6 - 12 months	82: 177	Remuneration of 50 % of minimum wage, travel and maintenance expenses of up to 25 -% of the minimum wage	82: 12 000	On-the-job training, in some cases concomitant courses		Selective, work to community benefit in public and private organizations	Job-seeking young people between 18 and 25 years without vocational experience or any idea of what they want to do
actical aining preding vocaonal preparation tages de éparation la vie prossionelle)	Department commission for "Orientation and training" (Commission départementale "Orientation et formation")	Starting 9/82			Remuneration of 30 % (18 - 21 yrs.) or 40 % of minimum wage (over 21 yrs.), women with children and the handicapped receive 90 % of the minimum wage; payment for hours of training (FF 16 per hour per trainee)	6/83: 43 130	In-firm and joint-company courses, on-the-job training		Selective, no temporary employment agencies	Mainly job-seeking young people between 18 and 21 yrs., single women with children, the handicapped, young people who have already participated in other schemes without success
ntroductory, ocational reparatory actical aining period tages de éparation à s vie profesionelle 'insertion)										
Type I Type II	Ditto Ditto	Ditto Ditto	3 - 5 months Less than 10 months		Ditto Ditto	Ditto Ditto	Ditto Ditto, average 50 % of the training in the firm		Ditto Ditto	Ditto Ditto

Overview of the programmes: Job creation and vocational training

France V

Programme	Sponsor	Duration of the scheme	Duration of the promotion	Vol. of funds in mill. FF p.a.	Type and extent of promotion	No. of participants p.a.	Content + form of training	Special provisions	Objectives Undertaking	Objectives Participants
Qualifying preparatory practical vocational courses (Stages de préparation à la vie professionelle de qualification)	Ditto	Ditto	Average 6 months		Ditto		Ditto, brief practical in-firm training course (2 - 4 weeks)		Ditto	Ditto
Advanced orientation practicals (Les stages d'orientation approfondie)	Ditto	Ditto	4 - 6 weeks		Ditto	82: 15 645	Ditto, help for young people in deciding on an occupation by provision of experience in enterprises		Ditto	Ditto

1) Only the respective amendments to the previous Plans are shown
2) FFPPS: Fund for vocational training and social promotion (Fonds de la formation professionelle et de la promotion sociale)
3) ANPE: National Employment Agency (Agence National pour l'Emploi)
4) ASSEDIC: Regional unemployment benefit fund

Overview of the programmes: Job creation and vocational training

Greece

Programme	Sponsor	Duration of the scheme	Duration of the promotion	Vol. of funds in mill. DR p.a.	Type and extent of promotion	No. of participants p.a.	Content + form of training	Special provisions	Objectives Undertaking	Objectives Participants
Training programme for young people	O.A.E.D.[1]	Starting 12/78							Non-selective	
- Type 1			2 x 5 weeks			3 500				
- Type 2			6 months		Wage subsidy of 30 - 40 % of the standard wage, depending on age	3 000	Special courses in vocational schools			Unemployed: 15-18-yr.-olds 15-20-yr.-olds
Training programme for unemployed persons	ELKEPA[2] (45 % of the costs) European Social Fund (55 % of the costs)	Starting 1982	4 - 5 months		Remuneration of DR 1 000 - 1 500 per day	82: 1 550 83: 2 504	Firm-specific final examination: business studies, 1-2 mths. theoretical training, then 3-month in-firm practical training period		Non-selective	Unemployed persons with a high level of education, at least an advanced school-leaving certificate
Programme for the construction industry	O.A.E.D. Ministry of Economic Affairs (45 -% of the costs) European Social Fund (55 % of the costs)	7/82-8/84	Max. 1 year	1983: 670 1/84-8/84: 520	Less than negotiated standard wage, rate depending on qualifications and receiver of unemployment benefit	7/82-7/84: 13 000	On the job training		Selective, building firms working for the public sector	Unemployed persons
Programme entitled: "20 000 jobs for young unemployed workers"	O.A.E.D. 45 % of the costs) European Social Fund (55 % of the costs)	9/82-6/84	6 months, later change to 12 months' promotion		Wage subsidy of 20 to 40 % of the wage depending on the sector: women not less than 30 %, later change to fixed sums of 400-800 DR per day, depending on sector and sex (30-60 % of the average wage)	Target: 15 000 under 25 years, 5 000 25-29 years	On-the-job training later 18-12-month contract, sector. month contract. Firms must keep no. of employees stable for 1 year or pay a fine. No staff reductions allowed 2 months previously ((Exceptions can be permitted by the O.A.E.D.	Selective, private sector. -Commerce and services -Small industrial enterprises -High-tech. enterprises -Garment and paper industries Enterprises dependent on foreign trade -Marginal producers	Unemployed persons under 29 years, later the age limit was removed	

1) O.A.E.D. National Labour Office
2) ELKEPA, Productivity centre

Overview of the programmes: Job creation and vocational training

Ireland 1

Programme	Sponsor	Duration of the scheme	Duration of the promotion	Vol. of funds in IRL 1 000 p.a.	Type and extent of promotion	No. of participants p.a.	Content + form of training	Special provisions	Objectives: Undertaking	Objectives: Participants
Community Youth Training Training Programme	AnCO[1]/YEA	Starting 1/76	Average 4 months	78: 1 930 79: 2 100 80: 1 950 81: 3 440 82: 4 000 83: 10 000	Usual AnCO pay, varying acc. to age and status - distinctly lower than standard wage	78: 79: 1 480 80: 1 900 81: 1 700 82: 2 100 83:approx. 3 000	On-the-job training with qualified instruction; in some cases opportunity to attend corresponding further training courses	Projects must be approved by AnCO/ICIU committee[3]	Selective; work in the public interest	Unemployed youth under 25 years, no or hardly any qualifications
Environmental Improvement Scheme	Dept. of Environment/YEA[4]	1/77 - 12/82	Average 2 - 4 months	78: 3 200 79: 4 430 80: 2 700 81: 986 82: 7 00	1981 flat rate of IRL 91 per week - just under negotiated standard wage	78: 79: 754[2] 80: 910[2] 81: 470[2] 82: 150[2] 1 000[2]	On-the-job training, in some cases with instruction	The scheme funds are also used to carry capital costs	Selective; work in the public interest	Unemployed persons, of whom 15 % over 25 yrs., mainly not or hardly qualified
Temporary Grand Scheme for Youth Employment	Dept. of Education/YEA[5]	1/77 - 12/82	Average 2 months	78: 700 79: 1 400 80: 1 500 81: 800 82: 2 500	1981 IRL-60 per week flat rate - just under negotiated standard wage	78: 1 170 79: 2 000 80: 1 800 81: 700 82: 2 100	On-the-job training with instruction		Selective; work in the public interest	Unemployed youth 17-23 years
Employment Incentive Scheme	Dept. of Labour/YEA	Starting 2/77	6 months	78: 4 400 79: 4 300 80: 3 700 81: 1 100 82: 2 590 83: 4 797 Jan.-Aug.	Wage subsidies for additional employment IRL 25 per wk. for young people under 20, IRL 30 p. wk. for adults over 20, IRL 45 p.wk. for those unemployed for over 6 months	78: 10 410 79: 6 969 80: 6 747 81: 3 446 82: 5 527 83: 4 546	On-the-job training No formal induction phase required	Approval of plans by Dept. of Finance required	Selective acc. to branch	Unemployed youth under 20 yrs.; unemployed workers, particularly long-term unemployed
Work Experience Programme	Dept. of Labour/YEA	Start 1/78	6 months	78: 100 79: 1 500 80: 2 100 81: 2 300 82: 5 600 83: 7 000	The IRL-30 per week wage is financed directly by the NPRS	78: 1 700 79: 3 000 80: 4 600 81: 6 500 82: 9 000 83:approx. 10 100	On-the-job training; employer must give participant experience of at least 4 different activities	Regular jobs may not be used for this purpose. The pay is tax-free.	Non-selective	Unemployed youth, mostly 18-20 years
Dublin Inner City Employment Programme	Dept. of Labour	1/81 - 1/82	6 months	81: 191	Subsidy for taking on stigmatized persons: IRL for the under 18s and IRL 30 for the over 18s	81: 384	On-the-job training No formal induction phase required		Non-selective	Stigmatized unemployed from the Dublin inner city area
Grand Scheme for Youth Employment	Dept. of Labour/YEA	Start 1/83	Average 5 months	83: 3 400	In 1983 flat rate of IRL 60 per week - distinctly lower than negotiated standard wage	83: 3 100	On-the-job training with qualified instruction		Selective work in the public interest	Unemployed persons Young people

Overview of the programmes: Job creation and vocational training

Ireland II

Programme	Sponsor	Duration of the scheme	Duration of the promotion	Vol. of funds in IRL 1 000 p.a.	Type and extent of promotion	No. of participants p.a.	Content + form of training	Special provisions	Objectives: Undertaking	Objectives: Participants
Environmental Works Scheme	Dept. of Environment/YEA*	Starting 1/83	On average approx. months	83: 8 000	1983: approx. IRL 90 per week	1983: 3 550	On-the-job training with qualified instruction. In some cases concomitant further training courses	Regional distribution of funds (IRL 6 mill.) proportional to distribution of youth unemployment; capital costs also paid	Non-selective; work to the community benefit	Unemployed youth
Youth Enterprise Programme	YEA	Starting 6/83							Selective. Establishment of new enterprises	
- Planning Grants				9.6	Payment of costs associated with planning of projects.					Employees of local authorities
- Enterprise Workers Grant			12 months	253	Payment of wage costs of project planners	14 projects were supported	Training of project planners		Non-selective	
- Start-up Assistance				365	Subsidization of jobs created; grants for special management costs. Total 1983 average IRL 2 450 per job	149		The enterprises, co-operative undertakings and projects can obtain additional funds from other State schemes		Unemployed youth
Schemes encouraging the establishment of enterprises										
- Youth Self-Employment Programme	YEA/Bank of Ireland	9/83		83: loans: 160	Management consulting, favourable credit terms, no guarantees from participants	83: 71 projects				Unemployed persons (3 mths.) from 15 - 25 years
-Enterprise Allowances	Dept. of Labour/ YEA	12/83	12 months	1 300 planned	IRL 30 - IRL 50,depending on status young participants are offered living costs allowance	500 planned				Unemployed persons 13 weeks
- Start your own business	AnCO[1]	1/78	3 - 5 months		Usual AnCO pay, varying acc to age + status,, distinctly lower than negotiated standard wage	81+82: start of 83: 351	Courses for potential entrepreneurs			Unemployed persons

Overview of the programmes: Job creation and vocational training

Ireland III

Programme	Sponsor	Duration of the scheme	Duration of the promotion	Vol. of funds in IRL 1 000 p.a.	Type and extent of promotion	No. of participants p.a.	Content + form of training	Special provisions	Objectives Undertaking	Objectives Participants
Training for Individuals	AnCO		4 months			81: 13 600	Training courses, qualification requirements of industry, commerce and services			Unemployed persons 16 and over

*1 - AnCO: The Industrial Training Authority
2 - YEA: Youth Employment Agency
3 - ICTU: Irish Council of Trade Unions
3 - NMS: National Manpower Service
+ Since 1982 the YEA has financed all sections of programmes for participants under 25 years by means of a special tax of 1 % on all incomes

Overview of the programmes: Job creation and vocational training

Italy I

Programme	Sponsor	Duration of the scheme	Duration of the promotion	Vol. of funds in th. mill. LIT p.a.	Type and extent of promotion	No. of participants p.a.	Content + form of training	Special provisions	Objectives: Undertaking	Objectives: Participants
Community construction and re-afforestation works	Ministry of Labour in collaboration with other ministries	Starting 1949	80: approx. 3 months	77: 7.3 80 approx. 1.3 th. mill.	The participants receive either a certain sum in addition to their unemployment benefit or a remuneration which is higher than the unemployment benefit. In both cases the total is lower than the standard wage	77: 30	On-the-job training		Community and non-profit organizations. Since 1978 selective by region	Unemployed persons
Employment schemes for young people (Leggio 1° giugno 1977 + 285 provvedimenti per l'occupazione giovanile)	Ministry of Labour	6/77-6/81				Up to 8/80: 81	Not less than 20 hours' work should be combined with vocational courses		Selective; private sector	Unemployed 15-26-yr.-olds, women and graduates up to 29 years
incl.: Training contracts			12 months			12				
Jobs with unlimited (time) contracts			18-24 months		Wage cost subsidy of max. LIT 32 000 (= approx. DM 85 = approx. UKL 22.50). Wage based on standard wage. Mezzogiorno max. LIT 48 000	8	On-the-job training		Selective; private sector	
Establishment of new co-operative or expension of existing co-op.			24 months		Total subsidy: LIT 100 000. Fixed term jobs or corresponding income transfers for building up co-operatives			Additional grants of up to 50 % of total possible		Unemployed persons between 18 and 24 years
Jobs in the public sector			12 months	1 310	Building-up of co-operatives	60	On-the-job training with qualified instruction		Selective; public sector	

Overview of the programmes: Job creation and vocational training

Italy II

Programme	Sponsor	Duration of the scheme	Duration of the promotion	Vol. of funds in th. mill. LIT p.a.	Type and extent of promotion	No. of particpants p.a.	Content + form of training	Special provisions	Objectives Undertaking	Objectives Participants
Job creation schemes in Campania and Borilicata	Regional labour administrations	4/81-6/83			Enterprises conducting partially or totally State financed restoration work were required to engage registered unemployed workers thro' spec. agencies They received support for further training schemes	Up to 1/83	Varied acc. to type of contract: on-the-job training, in some cases with in-firm further training.	Wage rate agreements initiated by regional commissions and applicable to new-workers and training	Selective, in the regions Campania and Borilicata only engaged	Unemployed persons, particularly unemployed youth
Training-employment contract (Contratto di formazione-lavoro)		1/83-2/84	Max. 12 months		Exemption from obligation to accept numerically allotted workers, obligation to provide in-firm training	2/83-2/84: 162	In some cases on-the-job training with instruction (from a few days to 12 mths.) in others alternating with theoretical training	Enterprises responsible for the planning and conduct of the training. The above-mentioned labour offices must approve planning	Non-selective	15-29 years. Unemployed persons, young people looking for their first jobs.
Training-employment contract		Starting 2/84	Max. 24 months		Exemption from obligation to accept numerically allotted workers, and from social insurance contributions			Enterprise responsible work and training plans. A commission with equal representation of the social partners approves and monitors	Non-selective	15-29 years. Unemployed persons and young people looking for their first jobs.

Overview of the programmes: Job creation and vocational training

Luxembourg I

Programme	Sponsor	Duration of the scheme	Duration of the promotion	Vol. of funds in LFR 1 000 p.a.	Type and extent of promotion	No. of participants p.a.	Content + form of training	Special provisions	Objectives: Undertaking	Objectives: Participants
Practical induction course (Contrat de stage-initiation)	Labour ministration, unemployment fund (Fonds de chomage)	8/78 - 11/82	26 - 52 weeks	8/78 - 11/82: 4 209	Premium of LFR 11 500 per participant; participants entitled to unemployment benefit receive 80 % of the minimum wage	8/78 - 11/82: 366	On-the-job training	When a participant is offered a new job he must accept it unless he can obtain a permanent contract from his present employer. Employer must pay 85 % of pay of an unskilled worker	Non-selective	Unemployed youth, 16 - 25 years
Orientation premium (Prime d'orientation)	Labour market administration, unemployment fund (Fonds de chomage)	8/78 - 11/82	Max. 3 years	8/78 - 11/78: 8 200			On-the-job training, joint-company instruction, basic skills		Selective, apprenticeships in under-represented occupations	Young people under 25 years
- Apprenticeship premium (Prime d'apprentissage)					Premium of LFR 36 000 per participant for the first 12 months					
- Training-employment premium (Prime d'emploi-formation)					Premium of LFR 24 000 per participant for the first 12 months		Crash course at a State-recognized institution			
Scheme for temporary auxiliaries (Division d'auxiliaires temporaires)	Labour-market administration, unemployment fund (Fonds de chomage)	Starting 8/78	Not less than 1 month		15 % of the minimum wage of an unskilled worker	8/78 - 11/82: 1 030	On-the-job training	Work in the public interest, in particular social and cultural tasks; employer must pay min. unskilled worker's wage; recipients of unemployment benefit must accept jobs offered. Employers must pay 85 % of unskilled worker's wage	Selective, public employers, non-profit-making	Young people under 25 years

Overview of the programmes: Job creation and vocational training

Luxembourg II

Programme	Sponsor	Duration of the scheme	Duration of the promotion	Vol. of funds in LFR 1 000 p.a.	Type and extent of promotion	No. of participants p.a.	Content + form of training	Special provisions	Objectives Undertaking	Objectives Participants
Premium for taking on an apprentice (Aide à l'embauche d'apprentis)	Labour market administration, unployment fund (Fonds de chômage)	Starting 3/80		22 000	Exemption from social insurance contributions and payroll tax, 15 % of apprentice's pay from State	8/78 - 11/82: 1 584	On-the-job training, joint-company instruction		Selective:	crafts, hotels and restaurants
Anti-crisis programme (Division anti-crise)	Anti-Crisis Dept. (Division Anti-Crise)	Starting 1977			20 - 100 %		On-the-job training			
- Steel programme						Starting 1977 2 000			Selective: Steel workers steel companies	
Extraordinary tasks in the public interest (Travaux extraordinaire d'intérêt générale)		Starting 7/75				Starting 1977 1 000			Selective: work in the public interest	

Overview of the programmes: Job creation and vocational training

The Netherlands

Programme	Sponsor	Duration of the scheme	Duration of the promotion	Vol. of funds in mill. HFL p.a.	Type and extent of promotion	No. of participants p.a.	Content + form of training	Special provisions	Objectives: Undertaking	Objectives: Participants
Promotion programme for experimental employment of long-term unemployed persons (Experimentele Regeling Plaatsing Langdurig Werklozen	Ministry for Labour and Social Affairs (Ministerie vor Soziale Zaken en Werkgelegenheid)	1/78-8/81	12 months	78: 16.2 79: 38.8 80: 39.6 81: 18.6	100 % wage subsidy for the first 6 months at the most. Total HFL 17 500, 50 % wage subsidy for a further 6 months at the most. Total HFL 8 700.	78: 672 79: 1 631 80: 1 664 81: 1 153	On-the-job training	The programme was combined with others at the end of 1981 to form a more comprehensive scheme	Private enterprises	Workers unemployed for over 1 year
Temporary job creation programme (Tijdelijke Arbeidsplaatsenregeling)	Ditto		6 months for under 45s, 12 months for over 45s	78: 62.2 79: 49.4 80: 52.4 81: 61.9	100 % subsidization of wage costs for 6 months, max. HFL 35 000 for under 45s, aid for max. 1 yr. for over 45s; also part-time jobs	78: 3 515 79: 3 020 80: 3 080 81: 4 012	On-the-job training		Public sector	Workers unemployed for over 6 months
1979 job creation scheme (werkgelegenheidsverruimende Maatregel (WVM))	Ditto	Starting 1/79	12 months	79: 210.1 80: 202.8 81: 192.0	100 % subsidization of wage costs of max. HFL 35 000 per annum, also part-time jobs	78: 5 690 79: 6 559 80: 7 828 81: 8 361	On-the-job training		Non-profit-making organizations	Workers unemployed for over 6 months
30 % Wage cost subsidy (30 % Loonkostensubsidie)	Ditto		Max. 6 months for the under 45s, max. 12 months for the over 45s	78: 21.1 79: 15.6 80: 11.2 81: 7.2	30 % wage cost subsidy, max. HFL 5 000 for under 45s, max. HFL 10 000 for over 45s	78: 4 242 79: 2 861 80: 2 052 81: 1 458	On-the-job training	Opportunities for under 35s to do part-time work		Long-term unemployed persons
Wage cost subsidies for young people	Ditto		Max. 12 months	78: 13.6 79: 17.0 80: 14.1 81: 8.8	HFL 650 per month	78: 2 575 79: 2 27' 80: 1 883 81: 1 616	On-the-job training			Long-term unemployed young people between 17 and 23 years
Vocational training grants from Government and industry in co-operation (Scholing in Samenwerking Tussen Overheid en Bedrijfslaven) - Training of unemployed persons	Ditto	Since 1944		80: 88.8 81: 101.0 82: 110.0	Training in simulated jobs. Pay varies acc. to age, up to HFL 460 per week (82)	80: 4 173 81: 4 613 82: 5 580	On-the-job training	Same claims to social insurance as regular employees	Certain branches	Mainly unemployed persons

Overview of the programmes: Job creation and vocational training

United Kingdom I

Programme	Sponsor	Duration of the scheme	Duration of the promotion	Vol. of funds in millions of UKL p.a.	Type and extent of promotion	No. of participants p.a.	Content + form of training	Special provisions	Objectives: Undertaking	Objectives: Participants
Programme: Training Opportunity Programme	MSC[1]	Start 72		78/79: 208.9 79/80: 229.4 80/81: 246.3 81/82: 248.7 82/83: 243.7	The participants receive a remuneration graded acc. to status and board and lodging. - Distinctly lower normal wages	78/89: 702 79/80: 745 80/81: 667 81/82: 614 82/83: 616	Off-the-job training; courses in training centres, colleges or rented private training institutions			Non-selective, mainly job-seekers
Temporary employment subsidy	Ministry of Labour	8/75 -3/79-	12 months. Option of 6 months' extension	Overall: 500	When 10 workers in a firm to be made redundant max. ed (UKL 10 were granted for extensions as subsidy per full-time job saved)	Overall: 540		Stopped on intervention by the EEC	Private employers	Workers under the threat of redundancy
Youth Opportunity Programme	MSC[1]	4/78 -9/83		78/79/ 62.7 79/80: 121.8 80/82: 212.3 81/82: 412.1 82/83: 702.2	The participants receive a remuneration of UKL 22. - Distinctly lower than normal wages	78/79: 162 79/80: 216 80/81: 360 81/82: 553 82/83: 630				Young people under 18; school-leavers; unemployed persons
Work experience programme Employers' premises			max. 6 months			81/82: 371	On-the-job training with qualified instruction, various skills			Private employers
Community Projects			6 - 12 months			81/82: 74	On-the-job training, sometimes alternating, with qualified instruction only		Community organizations, non-profit sector	
Training workshops			6 - 12 months			81/82: 16	On-the-job training, with instruction; organized production of goods and services		Community organizations, non-profit sector	
Vocational preparation			approx. 2 - 13 weeks			81/82: 91	Learning of extra-functional skills and fundamental vocationalskills		Community organizations, non-profit sector	

Overview of the programmes: Job creation and vocational training

United Kingdom II

Programme	Sponsor	Duration of the scheme	Duration of the promotion	Vol. of funds in mill. UKL p.a.	Type and extent of promotion	No. of participants p.a.	Content + form of training	Special provisions	Objectives: Undertaking	Objectives: Participants
Special Temporary Employment Programme	MSC[1]	4.78 - 3.81	Average approx. 10 months	78/79: 9.3 79/80: 51.0 80/81: 45.7	Normal wage, for simple tasks max. UKL 83	78/79: 19 79/80: 22 80/81: 18	On-the-job training	From 6/78 onwards applicable in certain regions only	Mainly public employers, non-profit sector	Unemployed persons, particularly the long-term unemployed
Small Firms Employment Subsidy	Ministry of Labour	7.77 - 4.80		Total: 65.5	Subsidization of additional employees at UKL 20 for full-time workers and UKL 10 for part-time workers	Total: 193	On-the-job training	firm, max. 200 employees	Selective, depending on size of	Unemployed persons
In-Plant Training Scheme	Ministry for Industry/MSC	Starting 4/80		4/80 - 12/81: 25	Wage costs of new, additional employees paid during training period and those of the trainers. Costs of materials paid	4/80 - 12/81: 10 000 jobs	Alternating, in-firm training	The aid must be necessary, the venture profitable and desirable as regards the economic structure	Selective, regions with particularly high unemployment rates	
Community Enterprise Programme	MSC	4/80 - 1/83	Max. 12 months	81/82: 64.9 82/83: 145.1 83/84: 142.2	Usual local wage, but max. UKL 89 for simple work and UKL 120 for more difficult tasks	81/82: 34 82/83: 30 83/84: 30 man years	On-the-job training with qualified instruction, in some cases with concomitant off-the-job training		Community organizations, non-profit-making organizations	Long-term unemployed persons: 18-25 years: over 6 months.; 25 yrs. and over: over 12 months
Enterprise Allowance Scheme	MSC	Starting 1/82	Max. 12 months		Taxable pay of UKL 40	As of 6/84: 34		Participants must invest UKL 1 000 in the enterprise to be established	Selective. Establishment of new enterprises	Persons not younger than 18 years having been unemployed for over 13 wks. and receive unemployment benefit or social security benefits
Youth Training Scheme	MSC	Starting 9/82	Approx. 12 months		Remuneration of UKL 750 p.a. for 16-yr.-olds, up to UKL 1 250 for 18-yr.-olds		Training usually on-the-job + project-related or organized by private employers with an off-the-job phase of at least 13 weeks			

Overview of the programmes: Job creation and vocational training

United Kingdom III

Programme	Sponsor	Duration of the scheme	Duration of the promotion	Vol. of funds in mill. UKL p.a.	Type and extent of promotion	No. of participants p.a.	Content + form of training	Special provisions	Objectives: Undertaking	Objectives: Participants
Vocational Voluntary Projects	MSC	Starting 8/82			Organization and provision of jobs and training		Job-related skills are imparted thro' on-the-job training and concomitant courses			Unemployed persons
Community Programme	MSC	Starting 10/82	Average 8 mths., max. 12 mths., for executive functions max. 24 months		The average wage paid within a project may not exceed UKL 63. The max. individual wage is UKL 91	Jobs 1984: 130 Participants 6/84: 120	On-the-job training with qualified instruction, increasingly linked with off-the-job training	Sponsors can transform a portion of the funds made available for wages + capital into expenditure on training	Community organizations, non-profit-making sector	18-24-yr.-old unemployed persons unemployed for 6 of the last 9 months; 24-yr.-olds unemployed for 12 of the last 15 months

[1] - MSC - Manpower Services Commission

CEDEFOP — European Centre for the Development of Vocational Training

Vocational training and job creation schemes in the countries of the European Community

Michael Bolle in cooperation with Gunnar John and Frank Moeller
Forschungsstelle Sozialökonomie der Arbeit, Free University, Berlin

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